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*Proceedings of the New Jersey
Conference of Charities and ...*

New Jersey State Conference of Social Work,
New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

ASBURY PARK

MONMOUTH COUNTY

APRIL 19TH, 20TH AND 21ST

1914

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PREFACE.

A distinctive feature of the thirteenth annual meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Asbury Park, was the co-operation received throughout the county. Through the assistance of the Monmouth county branch of the State Charities Aid Association, all organizations in the county were made to feel that the Conference was for their benefit, and many were given a part on the program. This has tended to unite the forces making the county more of a unit.

Another feature was the Section Meetings, inaugurated this year for the first time. Five sections, on "Probation and Courts," "Health," "C. O. S. Problems," "Municipal and County Institutions," and "Child Welfare," were well attended. Discussions were freer and there was a greater opportunity for personal contact of the workers with one another, to the mutual benefit of all, than in the General Sessions.

E. D. E.

Organization of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, 1913-1914.

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Sociological Exhibits.

In connection with the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

Arranged and Prepared by the Local Committee on Exhibits.

The exhibit was on view in the gallery of the Casino and open daily from 9 A. M. It consisted of a demonstration of the resources, functions, activities and needs of

State Agencies,	Public
State Agencies,	Private
County Agencies,	Public
County Agencies,	Private
Municipal Agencies,	Public
Municipal Agencies,	Private

On Sunday evening, April 19th, there were several special addresses in conjunction with the exhibit. Mrs. C. B. Alexander spoke on the work of the New Jersey Reformatory for Women, at Clinton; Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Vineland, told of what is being done for the feeble-minded in New Jersey; Col. E. A. Stevens, Commissioner of Public Roads, outlined the work being done upon the highways of the State by men from the State Prison, at Trenton, and Dr. Britton D. Evans, of Morris Plains, told of the work for the insane.

OPENING MEETING.

Sunday April 19th, 1914, 3:30 P. M.

General Topic: "The Government and the Governed."

INVOCATION.

REV. G. M. CONOVER, ASBURY PARK.

Almighty God, our Heavenly Father, whom we serve, we, having heard the call which assembles us together this beautiful Sabbath afternoon, look back over the way we have come and can see thy guiding hand; thou has kept our feet from falling and our eyes from tears, and thou art interested in all that concerns us. We thank thee, oh Lord, as we review the history of this great State, our birthplace, that thou hast been with us as a people and hast helped us. We thank thee that within the confines of this State there are God-fearing men and women who give of their time and means for the uplift of humanity. God bless the various organizations, as they have for their purposes the serving and helping of those that are helpless. Grant thy special blessing upon the speakers of this Conference, that they may have a message for this people and that this people may go back to their respective places of abode filled with a new desire to serve their fellowmen and thus serve thee. Be with them in the days that they gather here by the seaside from day to day, and grant as we return to our homes it may be to feel only the call of God, as Jesus has said, "Inasmuch as he did it unto the least of these ye did it unto me." Bless the speaker of the afternoon; give him a message from thine own heart and may it do us good, as it doeth the upright in heart. We ask it for Jesus' sake. Amen.

A Word of Welcome.

BY CHARLES WOODCOCK SAVAGE.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: His Honor, the Mayor of Asbury Park, asked me to be the mouthpiece of the city in welcoming you here to-day. Out of a hospitable heart words of welcome rise so naturally to the lips that this is always a pleasant duty to perform, but when, as on the present occasion, the speaker has been so thoroughly in sympathy with the objects which have brought this conference together, as I have been these many years, with your aims and purposes, then I trust I shall not be misunderstood if I add a warm personal tone to the more formal welcome usual on such occasions.

Men have met in all ages to discuss ways and means for the amelioration of the condition of their less fortunate fellowmen. Indeed, according to the good Book, this world was not very old when the question, "Am I my brother's keeper?" was asked for the first time, and that question has come trailing down the centuries until very recently always answered in a more or less sentimental manner. It remained for you, in these latter days, to apply scientific methods to this and other correlated subjects. To put the axe at the root of the matter, to concern yourselves with the causes of evil rather than with its effects, and the result has been of great benefit to the State at large. Therefore, dear friends, I welcome you, because I believe that through your discussions here there will go forth an influence that will be felt not only in our fair city and in other cities, but throughout the entire land. I trust that during your stay among us you will not find us so bad as to be of special interest to you as a conference, nor so good, "so un'co good," as the Scots put it, as to make intercourse with us as individuals irksome to you. Whatever faults we have are faults of youth. Asbury Park is not yet forty-four years of age, which, for a town, is synonymous with infancy, but, like everything else in this world, we are growing older every day, and we are getting rich in experience if in nothing else. But I am reminded that one of the reasons why

Mayor Berry assigned to me the pleasant duty of welcoming you to-day was the same reason given for the selection of the site for a Western city—that its terminal facilities were good, and so I shall have to try to live up to that reputation, although to say “a few words” and say anything at all is about the hardest task that one can place before a public speaker.

In closing, I wish, for the time being, that Asbury Park, like ancient London, had its Temple Bar, where our mayor this afternoon might confer the freedom of the city upon each and every member of this Conference. This being impossible, I know that I voice the desire of our mayor, and of our citizens generally, when I say that the modern equivalent to the freedom of the city (whatever that may be) we wish you to consider as conferred upon you. We trust that your visit may be so pleasant and so profitable that you will wish to come here again, and we hope that in the future you will always think of Asbury Park as in a sense a co-worker with you for the betterment of mankind, for to this city by the sea each year come the weary and worn toilers from all parts of the land, here to be strengthened to meet the trials and the temptations which go to make up our complex modern life. May all your discussions benefit man and redound to the glory of Almighty God.

Response to Words of Welcome.

PRESIDENT HUNT—On behalf of the Conference, allow me to thank you for your very gracious words. It is not always realized, I think, by those who speak such words to us, how dependent we are as a conference upon them. (We have no abiding place; we have no home; we are here to-day and gone to-morrow; we go from Atlantic City to Paterson—all over the State—and we are absolutely dependent upon the work which we do. These are gracious words of welcome, and it is very encouraging to us all at the opening of the Conference to hear such words as yours which bid us welcome to your city.

President's Address.

BY REV. WALTER REID HUNT, PRESIDENT NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, 1914.

In his interesting account of the life of John Bright, recently published, Mr. Trevelyan quotes a paragraph of an address delivered by the great Commoner, near the close of his long and honorable career. Standing before his Birmingham constituents, and reminding them of the contests which they had waged together, he said:

"The history of the last forty years of this country is mainly a history of the conquests of freedom. It will be a grand volume that tells the story, and your name and mine, if I mistake not, will be found on some of its pages."

He might have added "the history of the world." For beyond the islands of the sea the same contest was going on. Italy added her heroes in the names of Cavour and Garibaldi, and our own nation hers in the names of Lincoln and Grant.

I have no doubt that many of those who fought in that conquest of freedom believed that with the end of that fight there was to come the peace and happiness of the world.

It is not so written, however. More than a third of a century has passed since then, and as one looks about him it must be confessed there are still some things to be done. And the history of the first half of the present century, when it shall be written, will have as its crowning interest for men the use to which this freedom, so costly in its purchase, has been put. That history, too, will be a grand volume, not less noble than the other it may be, and in that chapter of it which deals with the State of New Jersey the name and influence of this State Conference will be found.

We know already a few of the uses to which this freedom has been put. We have seen the lives of children sacrificed in the factories and mines for the sake of employer's profits and parents' greed. We have seen the traffic in the souls and bodies of women conducted for gain. We have seen the love of play and recrea-

tion used to wreck and kill human life, and we have seen human weaknesses and passions preyed upon and fostered.

We have seen freedom put to another use; to excuse a man from any participation in, or any contribution to, civic and social health. We have seen it permit him to attend to his own business, to make his own fortune, without a thought of his responsibilities for the common good, or participation in its welfare.

If I mistake not, these will form that part of the history which we shall care least to read. We shall turn with truer instinct, I fancy, to that other use of freedom which has gone hand in hand with the abuse of which I have already spoken—the generous response to the needs that have been found in the lives of the unfortunate and the abused. The sheltering of the weak and neglected by the strong. And the enlistment in the service of their fellows by so many of the youth of to-day. In an age when the financial prizes were never so great, nor so plenty, many a young man and woman voluntarily prefers to find his reward in the service of his fellows, his joy in adding his life to theirs. In all history there is no chapter more beautiful than this.

May it not be that when the smaller definitions of religion have been found inadequate, and the narrower conceptions of the church have given place to something more worthy of this institution of the ages, we shall see that in these useful lives, freely spent in the service of their fellowmen, we are face to face with a daily manifestation of the religious life?

But the use of freedom does not stop with these lives of service. Much as they have given to those to whom they have gone with their ministry, they have given even more to everyone of us, in the knowledge as to the causes which have produced the misery which they seek to relieve.

That there are social causes for the misery which prevails, and that these causes are so overwhelming in their consequences that against them personal service and private charity alone are helpless, is one of the greatest contributions which has yet been made to human thought.

If it be true, and I think it is now commonly accepted as true, that there are these social causes acting to produce poverty,

sickness and hindered lives, it sends a challenge to our free democracy which is more searching in its demands than is at first realized. It is nothing less than a demand that we search out and destroy these social causes of misery, and replace them with other causes and conditions which shall make for health and strength.

No less than this is connoted, I think, in the two words now so much in use among us—abolition and prevention.

To many, I fear, the mere saying of the words indicates the accomplishment of the fact. There seems to be some magic in the words, like the "open sesame" of the Arabian Nights tale, which will bring, in a moment, the desired results.

I venture to suggest that it is not to be so easy as this. The new discovery must be accompanied by an imagination great enough, a vision clear enough, and a consecration deep enough—else we shall be misled again, as we have so often been misled before, by—words, words.

It is easy—never was it more so—to enlist personal service and financial means to help an individual or a family who is in need.

It is more difficult; takes a longer time; requires, above all, a greater imagination, to search out and attack the social causes which have produced that need.

The one requires an individual, an hour, and a few dollars, and there follows the visible accomplishment of a result.

The other requires hundreds of lives—no one knows how many years, no one knows how much money. Men and women must work in the laboratories, never seeing those for whom they work. They must visit other States and other countries. They must put aside prejudices and change their minds. They must fail time and time again. They must become discouraged and take heart again. They must find those who know, convince the skeptic, and make the blind to see. They must visit the halls of legislation. All this, and more, they must do; and the end is not yet.

After all, we are not dealing with an exact science. A friend of mine, a physician, tells me it would be an easy thing to cure

tuberculosis; it is a harder and quite a different thing to cure a person who has tuberculosis.

When we are attracted then, as I trust we all are, by the challenge to add to our common service in the alleviation of human misery, the larger duty to seek out and abolish the causes that produce that misery, let us not think it is some easy way to which we are called. Let us rather see that it is a distant goal, but possible.

I commend to you the memorable prayer, quoted by Agnes Repplier, which was offered by Sir John Astley, a hardy old cavalier, who was both devout and humorous, before the battle of Edgehill: "O Lord, thou knowest how busy I must be this day. If I forget thee, do not thou forget me. March on, boys!"

There remains yet one further use of our freedom in the great affairs of life which I have to suggest to you as the crowning use of all: The living of the abundant life in every one of the human relationships in which we stand, one to another.

Many a life is generous with its money; stingy in its influence. Kind in its family relations; cruel in its business methods. Devout in its ceremonial; careless in its duties to the world. Strict in its private morals; careless in its public morals.

This attempt to break life up into water-tight compartments, each separate and distinct from every other, is failing more and more to command the respect of thoughtful men.

Over against this departmental type of life stands John Burrough's estimate of the life of Mr. Emerson. "I like Emerson," said Burroughs, "because where he is, he is altogether."

In the library, on the public platform, in his business relations, in the pulpit, in his poems and essays, the whole man is found, and he always rings true. It is the type of what I mean by the abundant life.

Alleviation, prevention, abolition, are steps on the long road, but they are not the end of the road.

In the days of slavery, many a master was kind to his slaves. But the relationship was degrading to both. The Proclamation of Emancipation destroyed this relationship; it was prevention and abolition carried to its fruition.

Fifty years have passed since then. The other day I saw in a printing office a copy of a poster which had just been delivered to a customer to be placed upon a house which he owned in one of the best residential districts. It read: "To be sold to the highest bidder; only colored people need apply." Probably slavery itself shows nothing more cruel than this blackmail of a race, either for profit or to satisfy a grudge or a spite.

After wages have been raised there must yet come an honesty and an integrity in the work.

After hours of work have been reduced there must come a use of leisure for refreshment and real growth.

After child labor is abolished there must come the participation of the child in the common welfare, and his fitting preparation for a useful life.

After unfair methods in business are abolished must come a true recognition of what business is for after all.

After graft and partisanship in politics are gone there must come devoted and faithful service to the State.

It is a great time, this first half of the century in which we are living, for those who believe that this larger use of freedom and life is possible. I know how visionary it must seem to many. The mechanics of life are wonderfully attractive. But its soul has a power which runs deeper still. It is because this soul is wrong that the unrest of our time is what it is. It is because the soul of childhood is imperiled that the cry goes up. It is because the soul is stunted and blunted that what is called success in business and life does not mean to a man or woman in later life what in his youth, when his soul is alive, he hopes it will be.

Mechanics and systems are not the means by which life is to be straightened, nor are short hours, higher wages, larger homes or greater physical strength alone the things with which it is to be satisfied.

And it is to this deeper power of the soul that we must call. To its sense of justice, service, helpfulness, kindness, generosity, loyalty—these, after all, are the only things which have the power to satisfy.

It must be buttressed, this life and faith of which I speak, by what I call singleness of purpose. Nothing of selfishness or indifference must be allowed to creep into the work which we are doing, or the spirit in which we are doing it. You remember how Kipling points out the danger in his story of "Kim". The Llama is about to buy his railroad ticket, when Kim stops him, tells him to keep his money. That he will beg the fare from a fellow traveler, and give the rich a chance to acquire merit.

This exploitation of the rich by the poor, and by the same token of the poor by the well-to-do, is as destructive in the work of charity and social service as it is in the world of industry and business. Heaven is not to be entered over the bodies and through the misfortunes of others any more than is business success to be so achieved. To consider, for a moment, the social prestige, or the personal advancement or power which may come to one's self from connection with a group of people who are doing a good thing, is to miss the mark for one's self, and to vitiate the whole thing. We must be honest with ourselves if we would strengthen the faith of which I speak. We must have singleness of purpose without an exception or a doubt. We must do the thing we can, because it is worth while, and we shall find our joy and our reward as we go.

And it must use this faith, methods and means that have been tried and proven and give promise of their worth. It is a great time, this age of ours, for schemes and plans. It is good to have them so attractively outlined and so boldly championed. Their promises are most alluring. But before we commit to their tender mercies the lives and destinies of others than ourselves, lives upon which in the last analysis must fall the consequences of these schemes, we do well to act with great care.

I have seen a Children's Aid Society in a comparatively small community collect from parents who had neglected their children and disburse to those families in one year the sum of \$11,000. I have seen homes reunited, deserting parents brought back, work found, and the family life flow on as before. And all this has been done by methods which are very simple and very old. The one suggestion which has been made by that society, which may be called at all novel, is the passage of a law which shall provide

that a parent who is convicted of failure properly to support his children, shall, as he serves his sentence, be compelled to work, and from the value of that work there shall be deducted and sent to his family a certain sum of money each week. This law might well take the radical name of making the punishment fit the crime.

Out of all such experiences as this there should naturally come suggestions of improvement in methods of work, and in the laws under which our various agencies work. The point which I wish to make is: that what is needed first in such a field as ours is not a revolution in the social organism, but a real attempt at a better social life, with the tools which we already have at hand.

And it must conserve this faith, the family, its relationships, its standards of conduct and life. How lightly we hear it said that the family has broken down. If this were true, my friends, you and I would not be here, nor would all the laws and all the substitutes of which we could think from now till doomsday avail to save. The family has not broken down. Let us beware lest we help to break it down by our charitable endeavors and our social schemes.

The judge who summoned the parents to court when the child failed to attend school, where his predecessor summoned the child, knew what he was doing. By his wisdom, not only did the child return to school, but the unity of the family responsibility was conserved, and society saved from a worse thing than simple truancy.

Community fatherhood and community motherhood are certainly attractive sounding terms. As a supplement to family endeavor they are necessary and helpful. But what we still need is "the real thing." To do these things we must know the facts as they exist. No exaggeration is necessary, no concealment will be permitted. We must know, not guess, and as soon as possible, exactly the situation which confronts us. And we must have an intelligent State plan as to the way out, and a careful estimate of the cost. Of course it will be expensive, but, then, what is money for?

In a word, we must have not politics, or partisanship, but

statesmanship, in the greatest field of human endeavor which exists, in all the world. I have faith enough to believe that when we have this kind of leadership we shall give to it our money, our lives, and our sacred honor.

THE PRESIDENT—It now gives me great pleasure to present to you Doctor Harvey W. Wiley, of Washington, who will speak to us.

The Government and the Governed,

or

The Overlapping of National, State and Municipal Authorities.

HARVEY W. WILEY, PH.D., WASHINGTON, D. C.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen—The question which has been assigned to me for discussion is a little bit off of the usual line in which I appear. I was particularly struck by the eloquent words of the mayor by proxy, who regretted that there was no Temple Bar in Asbury Park. I have always understood that one of the glories of this town was the absence of bars, and I fear if the temple bar should be re-established there might be others claiming an equal privilege.

The overlapping of the State, federal and municipal authorities is a problem that I can discuss very much better from my own experience than from any practical observations upon its effect upon charities. I think we may assume, for the purpose of argument, that the same kind of difficulties would occur in the administration of charities and corrections as are encountered in the administration of the federal, State and municipal laws relating to commerce in foods and drugs. One chief activity of all charity is largely the supplying of food, in the case of persons who are hungry, and of drugs for those who are ill; and, therefore, the overlapping of laws of this kind and the difficulties arising therefrom, it seems to me, are of the same general character. Having had a very large experience in the difficulties arising from the overlapping of federal, State and municipal laws in respect of foods and drugs, I perhaps may draw some

conclusions which may be of value in the administrative work of this organization.

I believe that we are not peculiar in this respect, viz., that we live largely in a state of illusion. We are proud, and sometimes boastful, by reason of pleasing fictions, and one of those fictions is in regard to our form of government. The Englishman is proud of the fact that he is ruled by the King, when in point of fact the English government is almost a pure democracy. We are pleased with the fiction that the people rule this country, when in point of fact we are ruled by a monarch, and thus you see both points of view are erroneous: the Englishmen live under a democracy and we live under an autocracy.

I am not speaking of this with any purpose of throwing any imputations upon the autocrat. I am a great believer in and admirer of the one we have at the present time. I can't say so much of his predecessors, from my point of view. But that is not the point at all. I wonder how many in this audience could pass an examination on the form of government in this country. I have no doubt there are many intelligent people who do not know how a President is elected. There are many men who do not understand legal politics. I have been surprised at the ignorance of intelligent people about the form of government which exists in this country. We are not a democracy, the people do not rule; we are ruled by an autocracy, big and little (mostly little), and hence we must take that fundamental fact into consideration in a discussion of this kind. It isn't so much what the law is as it is the way the autocrat interprets that law. The law may be all right, and its interpretation may be all wrong; the law may be all wrong, and its interpretation be all right. Therefore, the kind of government we have in this country does not depend so much on the laws we have as it does upon the autocrats who administer those laws.

Have you any idea how vast are the bounds of autocracy we have in the federal government? I served for nearly thirty years in the federal government, and know something about it. I was somewhat of an autocrat myself, as far as I could get permission to be, and I lived under the autocrats, or tried to. I

wouldn't call it living, but existing. I know all about them, and there is no ruler on the face of the earth to-day, not even the Czar of Russia, who has the power that is wielded by the President of the United States of America. No matter what his name may be, whether Czar, Emperor or King, I challenge anyone to deny this statement. If you don't believe it, just read the history of this country for the last year, and see if I am not right. Are we ruled by Congress? Well, you may think so. Come down into Washington and stay a week and see who is ruling this country—and a mighty good man, too, I think; one whom I helped to put there and one whom I admire and follow, but, nevertheless, an autocrat, with a great deal more power than the Czar of Russia. The Czar of Russia is an autocrat by reason of his own will; the President of the United States is an autocrat by the will of the American people. We don't elect weaklings to be our autocrats. We choose men of brains and men of power, men of faith, and let us hope always we will choose men of uprightness and honor to be our autocrats.

Why, you say, we have a Civil Service law. Yes, we have. Does the Civil Service law protect anybody in the Civil Service? Not to any extent. Any head of a department, any cabinet officer to-day, may discharge any person in his employ, and that person has no recourse at law to protect himself. There is not a man in the Civil Service to-day at Washington, in this great government of ours, who may not be discharged by the stroke of the pen. It is true the law in this connection says that the autocrat must make charges. Yes, it is of much use to make charges. The law does not say you have to prove them; not at all. I know something by experience. My friends, I was tried on charges that I had never seen nor heard of; convicted on evidence that was trumped up—false and malicious in character—sentenced to be discharged from the public service. Another fact: I didn't have a single idea of anything that was threatening me. This is the position of every person in the Civil Service to-day. Men may plot against him, bring charges; he may be tried, convicted and dismissed from the public service, and with no chance, as far as the law is concerned, to say a word in his

own behalf. Just a few weeks ago there came a young man into my office, with tears in his eyes and with trembling hand, and said, "I have been threatened with dismissal in disgrace from the service of the government." "Well," I said, "Yours is a common lot." He said, "But it is so unjust, it is so malicious, it is so undeserved." Of course, we all think *that* when we get discharged, and some of us, I think, are right. Well, I couldn't do anything for this young man. I told him, if necessary, to take his medicine like so many of the rest of us have. Every single member of the cabinet is an autocrat; every single bureau chief is an autocrat, and when we speak of the overlapping activities of the government we ought to know something about the government.

I should like to see all this changed. If it were possible, I should like to see the Civil Service protected as it should be, where an accused man might employ counsel if he desired; where a trial might be open to the public; where an accused man might have a chance for argument. The charges against me were made public and my conviction was set aside, and by no less a person than the President of the United States himself when he saw the papers that were taken to him for his approval. Not that it was necessary—oh, no, the Secretary of Agriculture at any time could discharge me on his own initiative—but somehow or other he didn't seem willing to discharge me without consulting some of the powers higher up. He first consulted the Attorney-General of the United States, and the Attorney-General of the United States looked over the report and wrote underneath, "Doctor Wiley is worthy of condign punishment" (whatever condign punishment means!). Well, if I could have been punished with real condign punishment, that is, "a punishment that fits the crime," I would not have cared. What was my crime? My crime was an effort to serve humanity. That is the crime I committed, and the only one, and I would have liked "condign punishment" for that. When it went to the President of the United States, he didn't pass on the merits of the case. No, but he said, "That isn't right. I do not see that Doctor Wiley has ever been informed of these charges against him," and he

wrote across these papers, where the Attorney-General had written his approval of this verdict: "Take these charges to Doctor Wiley and give him all the time he needs to make a defense." And that's the only thing that saved my skin—this sense of justice which had not yet been crushed out of the heart of the President of the United States.

I could go on and give you many other instances of this kind to show you that our government is a pure autocracy, and, therefore, the relationships of the government to the governed in this country are not what they should be.

Now, what are some of the faults of this overlapping? In the first place, the federal government has absolute control over interstate commerce. According to the constitution, the federal government has no control over anything except the powers which have been delegated to it by the States. The powers not delegated to the federal government are reserved for the people of the various States, but the power to regulate interstate commerce was one of the powers originally delegated to the federal government. The federal government is very jealous of its limited authority, and so is the Supreme Court, and the tendency of the decisions of the court is to extend this delegated authority just as far as it will stretch without breaking. This tends to make the federal authority more and more imperial over the authority of the State—and I will confess that I am a believer in imperialism. I believe what is good for one part of the country is good for all, and the laws that Congress makes relating to the public welfare I should like to see applied to all parts of the country—just as the laws Congress makes regarding taxation.

The question is not, however, the emphasizing of this imperial power over interstate commerce, but how does that power affect the States? The federal government may say what may come into a State and the State cannot keep it out. There are two things in which this power of the nation especially applies to interstate commerce. In the first place, the federal government may say that foods, which the State itself might exclude and whose manufacture the State may forbid, may come into the State if in harmony with the federal law and the regulations

made thereunder, just as long as they are in unbroken packages. That is, you may receive into this State from other States products in the original package which your State would forbid. And more than that, the Supreme Court has interpreted the "original package," and I think correctly. I have a standard by which I measure the correctness of the decisions of the Supreme Court: whenever the Supreme Court decides a case my way, I say the court is right; if it does not, I make a respectful comment, or, if silent, keep up, as they say, a "devil of a thinking." When the Supreme Court said the "original package" meant the package which was put up by the original maker, it said just what it ought to cover. Hence you can send into this State packages that don't measure up to the food products which the State permits, and your State cannot forbid their coming into the State because this would be interference with interstate commerce.

I have just returned from a trial illustrating, in one respect, this overlapping of authority. The State of Wisconsin passed a law which said that every package of food that came into that State which contained glucose should have the word "glucose" on the label and the percentage thereof contained in the food. The courts of Wisconsin upheld that law, and it was appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. The court said, "No, the State of Wisconsin cannot keep this food out of that State. It is regulated by the federal authorities and they say that 'corn syrup' is a proper name for glucose, and, therefore, when those packages went into Wisconsin with the label 'Corn Syrup' the State of Wisconsin could not touch them." The Wisconsin law also said the labels should not bear any other name for glucose. That was the reason of the decision of the Supreme Court. The State of Wisconsin last winter passed another law, saying that the manufacturers should put on the label the word "glucose" and the percentage thereof, leaving the other label on. And so Wisconsin has been sued again in the federal courts. I went out there to aid the State of Wisconsin in so far as I could to maintain the validity of the present law. I believe it is a just law and hope the Supreme Court, when the question again reaches that august tribunal, may sustain it. This is a most interesting ex-

ample of the conflict between the State and National authorities where the State, in my opinion, is in the right.

This calling "glucose" "corn syrup" is simply an interpretation of law by the executive authorities which I believe is wholly wrong, and yet it controlled the decision of the Supreme Court. You heard what I said awhile ago about the kind of interpretations that are sometimes made of laws. Any of the State's authorities, in so far as interstate commerce is concerned, may be interfered with by the courts of the United States, which are supreme in regard to interstate commerce.

Another case which is perhaps more pertinent to you is this: When the United States says a package of alcoholic liquor is labeled in accordance with the United States laws, the State cannot keep it out. It cannot be imported for sale, but if it is imported to you in your name, even if the State law does forbid it, its exclusion would be an interference with interstate commerce. No matter what you say in New Jersey, if your booze is shipped in the original package from another State in harmony with the regulations and laws of the United States, it can come to you in the original package and the State cannot forbid it. Just now the States are going to put up to the Supreme Court another proposition, that while they cannot forbid it, the State shall take charge of it the moment it crosses the line. What the State is going to do with it when they get it I don't know. I suppose the Governor and the other State officers, who are autocrats, can use it as they like, and whether they are going to pour it into the gutter or into the esophagus we don't know. But at least they will have the power if the Supreme Court sustains that law.

I am not a teetotaler, but I am a Prohibitionist, and have been for a good many years. I see so many evils from the liquor traffic that I am perfectly willing to go the rest of my life and not take a drop if by doing so my brother may be saved from a drunkard's grave. (Applause.) So whenever I have an opportunity I speak for prohibition, and if I had the right to vote in the autocratic government of the District of Columbia I should not hesitate a moment on which side to cast my ballot. Although I am taxed out of my boots—if I wore boots—I have not a

single right to vote where I live. I can remember in my history a little unpleasantness that arose about a hundred and forty years ago between the Colonists and the mother country on that very principle, and some day the District of Columbia is going to re-issue the Declaration of Independence and set up a government of its own on the same lines as the Colonists did, and with equal justice, if this autocratic system continues in the District. They are paying clerks there the same salaries they did fifty years ago, and the price of living has gone up by leaps and bounds. Now, in Congress they have a bill that all the taxes which support the great capital city of this country shall be borne by these poor government clerks. There aren't enough millionaires in Washington to form a decent club. The people are poor, have small incomes, but as high taxes as any city in this country. There is an example of autocracy which you may well think of, when a poor man has no right to say how much he shall be taxed; has no voice in the law; is absolutely helpless. You patriotic people of this country, men having a just pride in your capital, will not say that the slaves of the District of Columbia shall support it in all of its beauty now and forever. I know there is one Jerseyman who may have an opportunity to return this act without his signature, and I hope he will, in simple justice to the people of the District and the country.

So you see when the State authority conflicts with the federal authority, the State authority usually must give way. Now, there are some things the State ought not to interfere with at all. Some of these things are of vital interest to your organization. Especially so is the quarantine service of the United States. While the United States has power to levy income tax, tax at the frontier and internal revenue tax, and raise military forces, issue bonds and coin money, and keep up relations with foreign countries, it has no right to quarantine one part of the country against another. The United States does not even quarantine against a foreign nation. That is one of the powers that ought to be delegated. It is in the line of the activities of this great Conference of Charities and Correction. It is the protection of the public health, the absolute control of interstate diseases,

just as if they were articles of commerce. The nation can control the Texas tick because that is carried in interstate commerce, but it cannot control yellow fever because the *Stygomyia* mosquito has no commercial value and does not attach itself to live stock when it is transported. Therefore, the human being may carry all the germs he pleases from one State to another, as far as this government is concerned.

I say, above all things, the control of contagious diseases going from one State to another should be in the power of the United States government. When an epidemic breaks out in a commercial center all the merchants get together and say, "We must not jeopardize commerce," and everybody says, "Keep it quiet. Don't let the people know we have small-pox here, because they wouldn't come here to trade." Why do we fear small-pox? Well, I will tell you: It spoils our beauty; it is no longer dangerous to life. Every single one of these diseases, I say, control as the Texas tick is controlled. The germs of small-pox, typhoid fever, and all the other pathogenic germs, should be subject to a national quarantine service, and they will be some day. The States will delegate the authority to the nation, which will thus be able to protect the public health. So I say, in this great work of controlling the food supply, the drug supply, any great work of controlling the centers of contagious diseases, the power of the federal government ought to be in all cases, as it is in some, supreme.

Thus you see this overlapping of authority, the State being jealous of what it holds, the federal government being tenacious of what is delegated to it, injures the efficiency of the laws relating to the public welfare and cripples the executive authorities which have the administration of the laws, which thus interfere in such a way as to be prejudicial to the general welfare of the people of the country. It seems to me that is the principle upon which I ought to particularize here to-day. In all these works of charity, in all this bringing pure food and drugs into the homes of the people, in all this control of disease, there ought to be no conflict, but a co-relation between the States and the federal authorities. In order to secure that, as we may not hope

to change our form of government very soon, let me say that the national and State officials should stop interpreting public bene laws in the interest of trade and unite in a pact to promote the common welfare.

Now, what is the next thing to do? To see that the people whom you charge with the business of being your autocrats must have your welfare at heart. That's the great thing to do for the country. To protect the people of this country from poison in foods, useless drugs and quack nostrums; place in positions of authority men who have proven themselves to be lovers of the people and not mere seekers after power and greed; men who have at heart the welfare of the people of this country and not an industry or branch of manufacture or mercenary purpose whatever.

While I was still in the government's service there appeared before me, one day, an eminent man, who had been a member of the Cabinet, as the attorney of those who use alum in food. He said to me, "There are eighty millions of dollars invested in this alum industry. You wouldn't, by any arbitrary acts of yours, destroy eighty millions of dollars, would you?" I said to him, "If there were eighty billions of dollars in this industry or any other which injures the public health, I would not hesitate for a single moment, if I had the power, to destroy that industry." I don't hold myself up as a model as a public servant. There are millions of men and women in this country who would have answered in like manner. I want to say one thing for my own behalf, if you will allow me, just to illustrate: I served as a government official nearly thirty years. Congress placed in my hands certain functions in connection with the administration of the Food Law. In hundreds and hundreds of instances where I was called upon to decide points arising under that law, when it was a question between the right of the manufacturer and the welfare of the consumer, so far as I know I never gave the benefit of a doubt to the manufacturer. If there was a doubt in my mind, I resolved that doubt in favor of the consumer in every instance. And why? If you wrong a manufacturer, he can appeal to law. If you wrong the consumer,

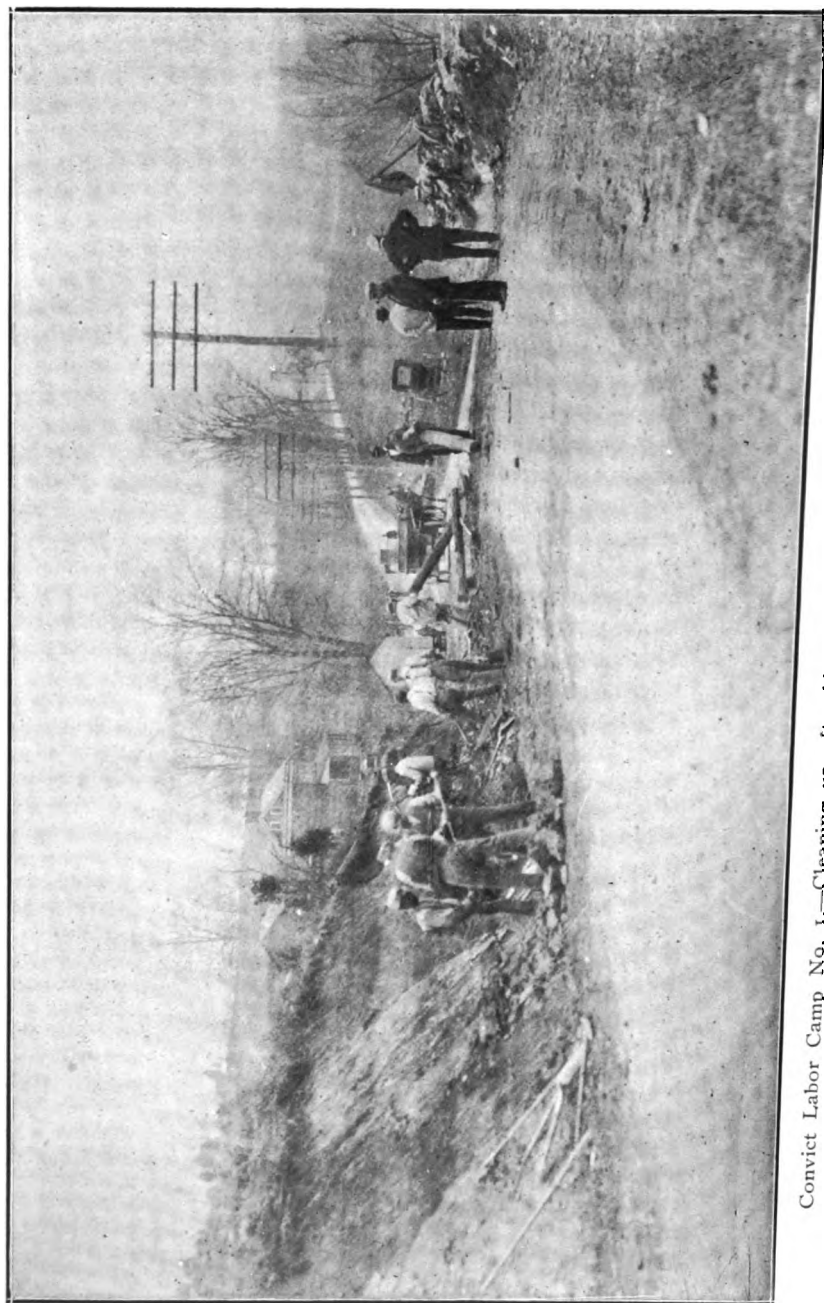
has no appeal, he is absolutely helpless. As a consumer in this country I cannot go to court and bring a single one of those rulings under the Food Law which I think are wrong before the courts. The consumer is absolutely helpless in the matter, whereas a manufacturer can appeal to the court if he wants to and have his wrongs redressed by the court.

An illustration will explain this attitude. I don't believe in drinking whiskey, but when one does drink it it ought to be whiskey. In the whiskey controversy, as usual, I got the hot end of the poker. I ruled that whiskey was whiskey, and all the people that made whiskey that wasn't whiskey appealed from my decision. They carried with them the Secretary of Agriculture and the solicitor; they never failed to be on the other side when they knew what side I was on. Then they carried it up to the President. It was not a matter that concerned him. But this is an autocratic form of government. It was a matter that the court should consider. I was very much gratified when the President of the United States sustained my opinion. I give credit to Mr. Roosevelt for doing that. He evidently knew as much about whiskey as I did, being, as I am, a teetotaleroid.

Then what did the men who were making the rot-gut whiskey do? They appealed to the court, and carried the question in succession to several federal courts and lost in every one of them. Every single court decided that my decision was the correct one according to law. Just at that time we swapped horses, got a new President. The first thing he did was to overthrow the decision of his predecessor on the question. So now any old thing is whiskey in this country, as long as it has enough alcohol to make you drunk. The night that decision was made I met Mr. Justice Harlan, that grand six-foot-four Kentuckian—that giant of intellect and of heart. He said, "What is this I hear about holding Supreme Court in the White House?" I said, "Mr. Justice Harlan, you know about as much as I do." "Well, well," he said, "Its about time this question was coming up to my court." I said, "Oh, Mr. Justice Harlan, it will never come there under this administration," and it never did. Nor has it under the present one. Verily we live under an autocracy.

These are illustrations of the overlapping of the federal and State authorities, and of conflicts of federal authorities themselves, which make it almost impossible for a State to defend itself against unfortunate interpretations of this kind. If I had time I could give you many more illustrations of this kind which I have known in my experience, but it is not necessary.

So I am glad you asked me to say a few words about the overlapping of authority, because it is of great importance to everything that leads to the public weal. Whenever you try to do anything for humanity there are lots of people and lots of interpretations against you. And so I hope there will be a spirit in this Conference which will spread throughout the State and the nation to correct the evils of which I have spoken, to see that only men of superior character, men of trust and full of service to humanity, are put in places of trust and profit, in order that the laws, good as they are or bad as they are, may be enforced in the interest of the public welfare.



Convict Labor Camp No. 1.—Cleaning up after blast on Newton Street.

Sunday Evening, April 19th, 1914.

Talks at Exhibits.

On Sunday night, April 19th, the exhibit of the Training School at Vineland was on view, and Alexander Johnson, Director of the Extension Department, was present to explain the meaning of the pictures. Various groups of members of the Conference came to the alcove where the exhibit was on view, and Mr. Johnson explained to them the meaning of the names of the three classes into which the feeble-minded are divided, namely, Idiots, Imbeciles and Morons. He called the attention of his audiences, of which he had three successive ones, to certain pictures illustrating the kinds of work that feeble-minded children can be taught to do, their heredity charts, their amusements and work, and told a number of interesting incidents which threw light upon the character of the children and the methods adopted in their training and employment. About 150 people were present in the different groups who heard the talks. Many questions were asked and answered, and the method of exhibit was apparently very much approved.

COL. E. A. STEVENS, Commissioner of Roads, in talking about Convict Labor on the Public Roads, spoke as follows:

Generally speaking, I feel that the social side of the convict road work has been a success, and that enough has been done to show that the financial side can be made a success under proper conditions.

The work was begun in the fall of 1912 upon a road known as the White Horse pike. Under the legislation as it then stood, it was held that the chief keeper of the prison was responsible for the custody of the men, and that they could not be taken out of the prison without his consent. The keeper was unwilling for the men to be taken away from the prison excepting for work in the neighborhood of Trenton, where they could be returned to

his custody every night. The work was carried on under the conditions until the summer of 1913. The Legislature of that year had passed an amendment to the act which, to some extent at least, relieved the head keeper of responsibility. This law is the law under which the work is now being done. The attempt to further amend the law last winter was not successful. At present the road department is responsible for the pay of guards but has nothing to say as to the appointment of the men, as to the number, or as to the rules and discipline, all of this being in the hands of the State Prison authorities. The legislation of last winter, however, enabled the governing bodies of the various penal institutions to establish a wage system, and it is proposed to apply this to the road work under an agreement which has been reduced to writing, but which has not yet become effective.

The object of the road work for the convict is to place men under conditions in which improvement will be possible, conditions which will fit them for a useful career after they are released. The advantage of having a man in physically good condition at the time he is set free is very obvious. It is also obvious that if he has been progressively liberated and more or less taught to control himself that the chances of his again yielding to temptation have been considerably lessened. I take it that the financial advantage that might accrue to the State from the employment of convicts on roads must be kept subordinate to the idea of improvement of the men themselves. I feel sure that the financial gain from the latter, though intangible, will exceed that from the former.

The men have shown an excellent spirit. Heretofore they have not been under pay. The system which is now proposed would give the men pay for their services on the road. Out of the fund thus created the men would be housed, fed and clothed. They would also be charged with the cost of guarding. The surplus remaining would go partly to the State Prison to reimburse the State for his expenses while there, and the balance would be available for the support of his dependents, or for his benefit when released, under rules and regulations of the governing body of the institution.

The legislation under which the work has been carried on has been very imperfect, and many things have been done, not because they were advisable or economical, but because the law provided no means of meeting the emergency otherwise.

It is hoped that the arrangement now proposed will obviate many of these troubles, and that the others will be corrected at the next session of the Legislature.

Dr. BRITTON D. EVANS spoke on the needs of the insane in the State of New Jersey and what is being accomplished at Morris Plains.

Mrs. C. B. ALEXANDER spoke of the work on the farm at the New Jersey Reformatory for Women at Clinton. (For full report see 1913 Proceedings.)

Monday Morning, April 20th, 1914.

(Section meetings 9:30 to 11 o'clock.)

GENERAL SESSION.

11 to 12:30 o'clock.

Topic: "State Problems."

MRS. CAROLINE B. ALEXANDER, HOBOKEN, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—My duties this morning are very small and very pleasant, and I am sure they will be for you, as they consist simply in introducing the speakers. We are very fortunate in having as our Commissioner of Charities a man who has had a very unusual training, beginning as the Secretary of a State Board of Charities and having had a very large experience in managing one of the largest institutions for boys in the country. New Jersey was especially fortunate in being able to secure, through the foresight of the State Charities Aid Association, the services of Joseph P. Byers, our Commissioner of Charities and Correction, whom I have great pleasure in introducing as the next speaker, and who will speak on the subject, "The Problem of the State and Its Solution."

The Problem of the State and Its Solution.

ADDRESS BY JOSEPH P. BYERS, COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

This seems to be a conference of "problems." I notice on the program, on every page, printed in large type, "PROBLEMS, PROBLEMS." There are State Problems, County Problems, Municipal Problems, South Jersey Problems and Shore Problems. I notice something else on the program, and that is that the speakers during the sessions are most of them given very definite subjects to discuss; but it seems to be my misfortune and yours, this morn-

ing, that at this session the speakers are supposed to suggest off-hand the solution of the whole problem so far as it relates to the State.

I am glad that we still seem to recognize the fact that there are social problems that do not pertain wholly to the State; that there are still some county and municipal problems. This is a time when we seem to be inclined to put everything up to and on to the State, with a resultant tendency to shirk our responsibility as counties or municipalities, or societies, or churches, or individuals. We seem to be willing to "let the State do it." I am hopeful that we will still continue to recognize and talk about and to undertake to work out our county and municipal problems. We have them. We have also social problems that the church and neighborhood and the individual must work out, and I am of the opinion when the church and neighborhood and individual get to work on those things that directly concern them and in which they must continue to have a direct responsibility and interest, the social problems of the county, the municipality and the State are going to be greatly simplified. We need clearer vision. We need to know what we are attempting to do. We are too prone to talk glibly about social problems. Not a few of us are ready to declare their solution offhand, and we are undertaking to do it before we are able to set down and relate the known factors and state clearly just what the problem is. We need to know what we are doing.

I think we need first of all to have a clear definition as to the State's policy with regard to the domain of Charities and Correction and what it is to be in regard to our defectives, dependents and delinquents. The functions of the State and of the smaller political units of the State must be clearly defined. In the report of the Department of Charities and Correction for the year 1913, under the head of State Policy, this appeared:

"The State has of necessity or from choice assumed the duty of providing for certain classes of its citizens, viz., convicted criminals, juvenile delinquents and mental defectives (insane, epileptic and feeble-minded). For the care of all of these by the State there is sufficient justification on the ground of necessity and self-protection.

"It has by statutory provision made it the duty of the smaller political units, counties and municipalities, to make provision for the sick, the needy poor, dependent children and petty criminals."

In my report of last year I called attention to the failure of the State to extend to the institutions caring for these latter classes its supervisory functions. I would again urge upon the attention of the Legislature the suggestions then made.

I believe that the State must say in effect something like this to the counties and the municipalities:

"I, the State, will take over the care of the mental defective, the criminal, the delinquent, and you in your several capacities must care for the sick, the dependent poor and for those physically incapacitated; and in order that you may accomplish the work with the greatest efficiency and at the least cost and for the best interests of the whole State, I, the State, will provide you with counsel and advice and criticism in order that you may do your full duty intelligently. I will pass and enforce general laws governing the erection and administration of your several institutions and the admission and care of their inmates; for the safeguarding of health; for the regulation of your schools; for controlling your housing conditions and the labor of your women and children. In short, I will indicate the laws for the general good and see to it that you live up to them." Now, here is where the State of New Jersey has fallen down, or at least not lived up to its full opportunity. Although by statute the State directs how the dependent poor shall be cared for, how minor criminals shall be treated, what provision should be made for the sick poor, how certain homes for the care of dependent children may be established, it has failed utterly to provide the facilities or the law by and through which the institutions maintained by public and private funds, one or both, for these several classes of its citizens, are to be supervised, regulated, and, within reasonable limits, controlled. The almshouses, children's homes, public hospitals, private institutions for delinquent children, county penitentiaries and jails are not under State supervision. I am firm in my belief that they ought to be.

I want, briefly, now, to take up the several classes that the

State, as a State, should provide for, not merely to supervise, as is indicated on the chart behind me, but to control, to manage, and direct. We have had within the past year, a State commission engaged in studying the care of mental defectives. That commission has completed its work and submitted a report which is now in print and can be had on application to the Commissioner of Charities and Correction. It suggests and recommends what the policy of the State should be in establishing a system for the care, and custody, and treatment of the insane, the feeble-minded, and the epileptic. I know there is likely to be a difference of opinion with regard to an ideal system for New Jersey, but this difference of opinion is not serious so long as we have an ideal in front of us and are open-minded enough to consider the ideals of others to the end that out of such consideration we may develop a system that shall be safe and sound, and comprehensive and just to all of the citizens of the State. But we, all of us, must realize that in dealing with these matters there are practical difficulties, customs, habits, that must be overcome or modified or because of which we must be willing, at least for the time being, to modify our ideas. And after all, though we are constantly striving for the attainment of our ideals, their realization would be about the worst thing that could happen to us, because then we should be satisfied, and when we are satisfied we are likely to quit, and when we quit we begin to go back, for there is no standing still.

I think that most of us could agree that the ideal system for the care of the insane would be full State care and that the county and municipality should not be required or permitted to make any provision for this class, but that the State should provide directly all that might be needed for their care and treatment. But on the practical side of it we find a present system to which the State has adapted itself of a combined State and county care. Under this system six counties of the State, embracing more than half of the State's population, have invested their own funds in providing accommodations for a large number of their insane citizens. The investment in lands and buildings for this purpose by these six counties approximates

\$5,000,000. If the State should adopt full State care it would be necessary to take over these institutions from the counties. The financial condition of the State forbids this and so what we might approve as the ideal system must, at least for the present, be cast aside because of the very practical consideration that the State, with its present income, is unable to finance the proposition. But times change and so do laws and ideas, and though it is cast aside it may, nevertheless, remain the ideal until one better and higher is brought to life. So the Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives, in studying the situation, realizing the difficulties in the way of accomplishing full State care, and realizing, too, the fact that you ought to realize, that this State is woefully deficient in its accommodations for the insane, has recommended the establishment of a colony system.

It has suggested that we should provide at once for three colonies to accommodate not to exceed three hundred patients, each to be located on farms of not less than five hundred acres each; that the buildings should be plain, simple and inexpensive; that the outside cost of these colonies, including land and buildings, should not exceed a per capita cost of \$350 and that they should be located within a reasonable distance, say twenty miles, more or less, of the two State Hospitals for the Insane, and that they be directed by the present Boards of Managers of the Trenton and Morris Plains Hospitals. The commission called attention to the fact that there are now more than one thousand insane persons under public care in excess of the normal capacity of our hospitals. The colony system recommended itself, first, because of its economy; second, because of the increased benefit to patients; third, because it would mean immediate relief to citizens, and lastly, because its elasticity would enable the State to make additional provision as the need might arise.

The only relief now in sight, and that is only partial, is at the Trenton State Hospital where funds have now been provided for the erection of a separate building for the care of the criminal insane, and at the Morris Plains Hospital, where \$20,000 has been appropriated for additional buildings to relieve the congestion at that institution. The most that we can hope for is

that the building for the criminal insane will be ready for occupants by the spring of 1915, and the new building at Morris Plains in about a year from this time. We shall be fortunate if we secure additional accommodations for more than one hundred additional patients with the \$20,000 appropriated. It will remain for the Legislature of 1915 to carry out the recommendations of the commission, or failing this, to select some other mode of action, or failing in both, to continue the overcrowded conditions which are already not only distressing but disgraceful.

With regard to the care of feeble-minded, New Jersey has in some respects taken the lead. The best indication of this is in the growing interest on the part of the public. While our provision for the feeble-minded, both children and adults, is still woefully inadequate, we are in this respect at least no worse off than other States, and I believe that through the development of the work at the Vineland institution and the Burlington County Colony we are establishing a policy and a system that other States will be glad to emulate. The people of the State are beginning to realize the need for increased provision, and I am confident that what we have so far accomplished indicates the methods and character of the work for the care of this class. Most of you know that we have no State institution for the care of feeble-minded children. New Jersey has for some years utilized a private institution, the Training School for Feeble-Minded Boys and Girls at Vineland, for the care of what feeble-minded children that institution was willing to receive. The limit of the school, so far as State wards is concerned, has, until very recently, been 300, but during the past year or year and a half, because of the pressure for admission and the compliance of the school officials, this number has been exceeded until we have now at the school approximately 350 State wards. This number, if charged for at the rate established by law, \$330 per year, would exceed the available appropriation by about \$15,000, but up to the present the school has charged for the care of these wards between \$40 and \$50 a year per child less than it might have demanded. You will see from what I have stated that not only has the limit of the appropriation been reached, but the capacity of the institu-

tion as well. There is no hope that the Vineland school will be able in the future to care for a larger number of children than it is now providing for. The rate at which new applications are being received keeps building up a waiting list, and there is no present prospect that demands for this class of children will lessen, but quite to the contrary. One reason for this is that the growing number of special school classes with the consequent segregation of backward and mentally deficient children is bringing these children to notice. We shall of necessity very soon give serious consideration to the establishment of a State institution along the lines of the Vineland school, and it should be located in the northern part of the State.

The recent report of the Commission on the Care of Mental Defectives contained also a recommendation, as in the case of the insane, that the colony system should be adopted for the feeble-minded. If the Burlington County Colony, which is now assured, shall work out successfully, it will at least show us the way for making economical and satisfactory provision for that class of feeble-minded men who must remain under custodial care. With the establishment of an institution for the training of feeble-minded children, as already suggested, and the enlargement of the State Home for Feeble-Minded Women at Vineland to care for all custodial cases of women of child-bearing age, New Jersey will have practically solved the problem of institutional care for the feeble-minded.

The realization of these needs would be greatly expedited if the citizens of the State could sit with me for a few days in my office reading the letters that come to me making demands and petitions and prayers for the commitment of feeble-minded children. Then if these citizens had to explain either personally or by letter to parents, relatives and friends why it is that their petitions can not be granted, even though it might be a feeble-minded girl or woman in imminent danger of going wrong, or already going wrong, and for whom, unless the State should step in and at once, there could be no hope; or, it might be, a feeble-minded boy who is getting beyond the ability of the family to protect or control; and all that they could say to these dis-

tracted parents was, "There is no provision; your daughter or your boy will have to wait until some of the inmates of the Home for Feeble-Minded Women or the Training School die, and then he or she will have to take his or her chance with several hundred others of the same sort, for each of whom there is insistent demand that the State shall do something," then there would be no question of the next Legislature adjourning before making ample provision for this class.

But I cannot dwell too long on the problem of the State with regard to the care of its mental defectives, for I must say a word with regard to the care of epileptics. Something like a definite policy for the care of this class was adopted during the last session of the Legislature. The State Village for Epileptics at Skillman has by law now become a Village for Epileptics. The clauses in the law that had heretofore excluded from that institution certain classes of epileptics, insane, feeble-minded, idiotic and otherwise undesirable, has been repealed, and the scope of the institution has been extended to include merely epileptics, without regard to either their physical or mental condition. Now, this is all very nice, but the State of New Jersey cannot send all of its epileptics to the Epileptic Village without first providing proper accommodations for their care, custody and treatment; so while we have established a broad—and, it seems to me, wise—policy with regard to the scope of the institution, we must not forget that before that policy can be enforced additional and special provisions for certain classes must be made.

Now, the chairman of the appropriation committee of the Legislature, Senator Hennessy, is sitting in front of me, and I am afraid to say how much money it would take to meet the demands of all of the State institutions. He has a good deal of congratulation over the work of his committee, and he deserves a lot, and yet no one knows better than he how far the appropriation committee fell short from meeting all of the State's necessities. The committee's failure was not due to the lack of appreciation of those needs, but rather to the necessity of keeping expenditures within available income. It was a wonder to some of us how the committee was able to do so well with the re-

sources at hand. It did provide generously for increasing the facilities at the Epileptic Village and at the State Home for Feeble-Minded Women. At the latter institution accommodations will be available next year for an additional hundred cases.

A new building to accommodate one hundred inmates is now almost ready for occupancy at the State Home for Feeble-Minded Women. The furniture is not yet in, but the appropriation committee gave to the institution in the supplemental bill a sufficient amount to equip it, and I am hopeful that by the 15th of May we will have an additional hundred beds at the Home. Now, that is not a notice for all of you to get busy at once in your respective communities digging up cases that you think ought to be committed to Vineland, and yet I am afraid that that is just what many of you will do. We have had a fairly large waiting list for commitment to the Home, but within the past few months all of these cases have been investigated by a special agent sent out from my department. The investigation disclosed the fact that some of the applicants were dead, some had moved from the State and some had disappeared. The number of the latter is gratifyingly large because it reduces the pressure. Of course, it may be very disastrous in another way, since many of these cases being out of sight may be doing just the thing we don't want them to do; but the number of applications approved and waiting for action can all be cleaned up as soon as this new building is ready for occupancy, and it will leave a fair margin of surplus accommodations. But the margin will not last long, especially if each of you feels it incumbent to do your share in reducing it from your several communities. But it is a tremendous relief to know that applications that have been a long time pending can be taken care of, and that we will be able to at least temporarily clean up the waiting list.

Now a word or two with regard to the State's policy concerning the criminal and delinquent. I suppose we may call it a policy but it certainly is not a comprehensive one. The State owns and controls a State Prison, a State Reformatory for Men, a State Reformatory for Women, a State Home for Boys and a State Home for Girls, five institutions, and these include all that may

properly be included in our State Prison system, because these are the only institutions that the State controls or seems to care anything about. Of course, we have certain county institutions, such as county jails and county penitentiaries, that any well-organized and wise State would not exclude from its State system, if for no other reason than that they are, for the most part, especially the jails, merely breeding grounds for the State Prison and Reformatory.

I think I said to you last year that officially the State of New Jersey does not know that a county jail exists within the borders of the State. I say it again, because there is nothing that looks like, or sounds like, or acts like State supervision of these county institutions, and I would go further and say that if there is any class of institutions in the State that needs State supervision and State direction it is our county jails. I went over the situation with you last year, and I am not going to repeat it, except to say that we have not yet hooked up these institutions to our State system, and further, that the State of New Jersey will never have a prison system worthy of the name until it shall include within it not only the present State Prison and Reformatory but all institutions, however organized and wherever located, that are used for the custody and punishment, care and reformation of those who violate the law, whether they be of the misdemeanor or felony class.

Unless we in New Jersey hurry up a bit the State of Massachusetts will lead the way. A bill is now pending in that State that proposes to take over under State ownership, control and direction all of the county jails. It is merely a question of time as to whether such a law will pass in Massachusetts this year, next year or the year after, and it is merely a question of time as to when New Jersey will do the same thing. I suppose we shall have to talk about it a good bit before we begin to move, but the more we talk the sooner we shall get ready to move, and the sooner we move the better. What we need to do is to get together on these propositions and having got together tell our Legislature in plain, straight terms what it is we want and when we tell them in a united chorus we shall get it.

A STATE SUPERVISION PROGRAM.*

1. Agencies That Should be Supervised:
 - (a) Sick, (b) Aged and Infirm, (c) Dependent Poor, (d) Mental Defectives, (e) Prisoners, (f) Children who are Dependent, Defective or Delinquent.
2. Supervision Covers:
 - (a) Administration.
 - (1) Organization, (2) Accounting and Financing, (3) Selection of Trained and Devoted Workers Free from Partisan Control.
 - (b) Home Care.
 - (1) Investigation, (2) Diagnosis, (3) Rehabilitation.
 - (c) Institutions.
 - (1) Preliminary Study, History of Inmates, Physical and Mental Examinations, (2) Admission Procedure.
3. The Form of Supervision Covers:

Personal Care, Medical Care, Diet-Training, Education, Building Architecture, Sanitation, Equipment, Inspection by the State, Reports by the State, Recommendations, Publicity.

THE CHAIRMAN—I would like to believe, and I do believe, that it would be impossible to get together in any one place, in any other State, an equal number of people who have more truly at heart, and more truly in their mind, and more truly in their vision, what is necessary for the State that we all love so well. But just as soon as these wishes of ours need to be expressed by the State and through the State, we find that we must appeal to those who have been elected by the voters throughout the State to carry out other policies. Now, whenever it comes to any reform connected with any State institution these requests have to be put before a certain number of men chosen from the Legislature each year who form the Appropriations Committee. Only those who have had some dealings, from year to year,

* Taken from the exhibit.

with the Appropriations Committee can imagine the difficulties they have to contend with, because every person with a condition at heart, every person loving and wishing for the best and the future of the institution with which they happen to be affiliated, feels that his claim ought to be considered, and there would never be enough millions in the State of New Jersey, or any state, to carry out what we all want to have done. Therefore, it needs a large mind, skill, knowledge and tact to make the adjustments which become necessary. This year the condition became even harder because of the condition of the State's finances. The chairman of the Appropriations Committee this year had a very difficult task before him, and I think the State of New Jersey ought to be congratulated that just at this moment the chairman should be the Senator from Bergen county. He wanted to get all the possible facts that could be brought to him and he wanted to go beneath the surface to know what it was that caused the necessity for the institutions which he is asked to help out through his committee; therefore, I think the State of New Jersey was more than fortunate in having such a chairman on the Appropriations Committee, and I think we are most fortunate in having him here with us to-day. So it is a very great honor to introduce Senator Charles O'Connor Hennessy, from Bergen county.

Address.

SENATOR CHARLES O'CONNOR HENNESSY, HAWORTH, N. J.

Mrs. Alexander, Ladies and Gentlemen: It is very grateful to me to have such kind words said about the Appropriations Committee. The Appropriations Committee needs them. I don't know of any committee in the Legislature which more deserves the kindly consideration of the people of the State, for its work is hard, and, ordinarily, misunderstood, and it cannot be explained to everybody. I have found the committee, in the two years in which I have served upon it, to be a body of honest, intelligent, well-meaning citizens seeking, despite peculiar diffi-

culties, to do wisely and well for all the institutions and departments of the State that are supported by public funds. Just because it has somewhat to do with the discussion of to-day may pause to say that the system under which the Appropriations Committee works every year in dealing out State funds to satisfy the various public needs seems to me to be a very inefficient term. A number of men are appointed by the respective presiding officers of the Senate and House of Assembly to do this work and the man who is chairman of the Senate committee is recognized as chairman of the joint committee. Every one of these men is engaged in active work in the Legislature. Some of them are chairmen of other important committees, and all are constantly engaged in dealing with various vital matters of public interest outside of the Appropriations Committee. Notwithstanding these demands upon its members this committee is expected to give patient, deliberate and wise treatment to the various and conflicting problems of public finance in the State of New Jersey. It cannot, in the nature of things, do so. The members meet once or twice a week during the legislative session and devote the time to the hearing of persons who desire appropriations. One man comes from an institution and says, "We need so and so, and we must have so much money." We have learned in some cases it is safe to discount what he says from twenty-five to fifty per cent. In some cases we find that the advocate actually underestimates the needs of his institution. We cannot discover even the approximate truth unless we make an actual, practical, personal study of the needs of that institution at the institution. And so the committee endeavors to visit the various institutions widely scattered throughout the State. This year we visited several of them, but as the visit usually permits only a superficial examination, I fear the result frequently is that the determination of the committee is a hit-or-miss judgment which does injustice as often as it does justice. That is not the fault of the men who are engaged in this work; it is the fault of the system. It is a system which is inefficient and uneconomical for the State. Some day I hope to join in the work of improving or reforming it.

You have heard a great deal recently about efficiency and economy in the administration of the State government, even if no practical results are in sight. Efficiency and economy in the administration of private business has concerned many kinds of business men a great deal within recent years, and a new profession, that of business engineering, has grown up to show how we may economize effort and eliminate waste in accomplishing business results. The efficiency engineer gets a large salary for his capacity to go into a business establishment and point out to the employer where waste and inefficiency are going on, and where economies can be effected, in order that the head of the business may get at the root of things in accomplishing the most with the least expenditure of effort and of money. Now it seems to me that the principles of economy and efficiency might well be applied to this business of charities and correction with which you are dealing. That is the thought about which I came here to speak a few words to you to-day. I regret that I have not had any opportunity to prepare any formal address, but I aim only to make a suggestion that may be worth thinking about, in the hope that out of it may come fruitful thought for the future of the fine work in which you are engaged.

One of the things that we discovered in the Appropriations Committee work is this: The State of New Jersey has the service of some splendid men and women, many of them unpaid servants of the State, who sacrifice time, comfort, convenience and material resources for the common good, aiming to make our State a better place in which to live. And according to efficiency standards as commonly understood, we have fine public servants of the paid kind, also. One of them is the gentlemen who has just spoken to you, the Commissioner of Charities and Correction. I believe him to be a conscientious public servant and there are others like him, not only in the departmental activities at Trenton, but in charge of these various institutions; the Asylums for the Insane, the Tuberculosis Sanitarium, the Epileptic Village at Skillman, the Home for Feeble-Minded Women at Vineland, and others, where skilled and conscientious men and women labor for the State. So if there is not a real but only a

superficial economy and efficiency in administration, it because of the character of the men and women, unpaid and who are engaged in this work, but it is because of some fundamentally wrong viewpoint with respect to the problems which they have to deal.

At the outset I make bold to say that few of you seem to apprehend what the real problem is. What should be the real aim end of the great expenditure of public and private effort money that we are devoting to the problem of the indigent dependent sick, the infirm, the insane, epileptic, feeble-minded and criminal classes? Is it a problem of amelioration or of prevention? If your work is only to ameliorate, then I must say seems futile, inefficient and wasteful of effort and of money. For reflection should convince us that the things that we are doing in New Jersey are as a mere drop in the bucket of amelioration, so long as we are leaving the sources and the cause of our problems untouched.

Commissioner Byers tells us that our State institutions are woefully deficient in their capacity to care for all who should be in custody or under care. The State prison is too small, the asylums are overcrowded, and there is a long waiting-list of people who should be in institutions for the feeble-minded. Mr. Byers tell us with pleasure that the Appropriations Committee was able to provide for the erection of another building at Skillman, so that you are going to be able to take care of one hundred more epileptics this year. I cannot think of this as a great accomplishment. Why, they told me down at Skillman that there are thousands of poor epileptics in the State that are registered and known and who ought to be under custodial care of some kind. And why are our well-managed State institutions deficient? Why, in spite of the labors of all these good men and women, paid workers and volunteers, are you making no real progress in solving your problem? It is because somewhere and somehow they are manufacturing these classes, these dependents and defectives and human wrecks, faster than you can take care of them. Do not the principles of economy and efficiency suggest that you should attack your problem at the source?

I see here Captain Allen, another fine public servant, who is doing what he can with the tenement-house problem in this State. It is allied closely to your problem. Not thousands, not tens of thousands, but hundreds of thousands of men and women are crowded together under housing conditions that tend to destroy health—morally, physically and mentally. Do people live in a tenement-house because they like tenement-houses? Do people live in hovels because they would rather live that way than some other way? No, my friends, the tenement-house question is but an aspect of the poverty question, and you must discover that if you would efficiently deal with the conditions that produce the sick, the infirm, the dependent poor, the criminal and the mental defectives, you must first deal with the fundamental problem of poverty. Just what causes poverty in a State? Will you argue backwards and say that people are poor because they are physically or mentally defective, or immoral and intemperate? Reflection and study teach us something different. If we will but look beneath the surface we will see that involuntary and undeserved poverty is the real problem, and that it resides in the fact that there is a considerable class in every large community unable to find the opportunity to employ themselves, or be employed, and that vast numbers of our citizens are employed precariously, or at such small return for their labor that existence has become for them a constant struggle against conditions which degrade and brutalize. These conditions produce the great Social Disease of which the moral, mental and physical deterioration of the individual are symptoms, and prisons, insane asylums and charity hospitals the incidents. Is the Poverty Disease a natural one? We cannot be Christians and think so. A great philosopher has said it would be blasphemy to believe that the Great Architect of the Universe, to whose infinite skill all nature testifies, has made such a poor job of this world of ours that a majority of human creatures are naturally condemned to constant want, suffering and toil such as shuts them out from the opportunity to develop those mental and spiritual faculties that raise man and woman above a mere animal existence.

You talk about tuberculosis. I went with my committee to

examine this tuberculosis sanitarium we maintain in New Jersey at public expense. Without reflection upon the men and women who are responsible for conducting it, I want to say that it seems to me like a joke, so far as it undertakes to prevent the spread of tuberculosis in New Jersey. What is the cause of tuberculosis? What is the cause of most of our physical diseases if it is not the conditions under which men and women must live? The normal man and woman is healthful, and if such a man or woman blessed with ordinary health is living in normal surroundings and, falls into ill health, as a rule it is his or her fault. But the conditions under which we are compelling hundreds of thousands of men and women and children to live, as Captain Allen, of the Tenement-House Department could tell you, are conditions which naturally produce tuberculosis just as they produce the other physical and mental and moral wrecks who are crowding our institutions to-day.

And so, to return to my idea of applying the principles of economy and efficiency to the business in which so many of you are giving fine energies, high intelligence and generous heart impulses, I would impress this thought that you are getting wholly inadequate results for the energy and humane devotion of your work. And if there is waste and inefficiency and small dividends, is it not because you are treating the mere symptoms of the disease instead of attacking the disease itself?

A VOICE—What is the remedy then; what is the fundamental cause of poverty?"

SENATOR HENNESSY—Perhaps it would be unfair to this Conference, and to me, should I attempt to fully answer that question in the two or three minutes that remain to me. I feel that I would offend the proprieties and outwear my welcome here if I undertook it. But I must say that nothing would please me more than to have the opportunity to talk to you at such length as to make myself understood adequately about what I regard as the fundamental cause of poverty. All that I can do in the few minutes that remain is to indicate, rather than demonstrate, what the fundamental cause of poverty is. I believe that if I had oppor-

tunity, and you had patience enough to listen to me, I could demonstrate, as well as indicate, and that I could send you out of here fired with a new thought, a new inspiration, a new conception of the opportunities that are open to all earnest social workers who really wish to accomplish something. I have tried to indicate in what I have said that it is a denial of opportunity to work which is the cause of poverty. Those of you who have studied economics to any effect realize that the production of wealth is a process that deals with the operation of three factors. These factors are labor, capital and land. These are all the factors in the production of wealth. The most vital of these is land. Land constitutes the opportunity upon which labor and capital must employ themselves. Man, and in that term I, of course, include woman, is a land animal, and must employ himself or be employed on land, and to the extent that the opportunity to employ men or women upon land is monopolized or restricted, to that extent is the natural order interfered with and freedom of opportunity denied. In economics, as in the movement of the stars and the manifold phenomenon of the material universe all around us, there is a natural order—an order, God-ordained, of infinite wisdom and infinite justice. We must make human institutions conform to this order if we are to have sweetness and light and justice and harmony here below. Our land system in New Jersey, as elsewhere, is an interference with the natural order to the extent that it makes it difficult for labor and capital alike to have free access to opportunity to employ themselves. All that is needed is to establish equality of opportunity for capital and labor alike, and that, I believe, can be brought about without any radical interference with existing institutions. It can be accomplished by gradual changes in our system of taxation, tending to make access to land more easy. Our present system of taxation imposes fines upon industry, penalties upon thrift and burdens upon enterprise. The gradual shifting of tax burdens from the values produced by capital and labor to land values produced by the community would bring about not only the most just and expedient way of raising public revenues, but would inevitably tend to set free industrial opportunities

and possibilities, and, in time, transform our entire social system and put an end to the problem of unemployment, and of great poverty amid great wealth. In New Jersey, those of us who have seen the glorious possibilities of the natural economic order, are proposing the first legislative step toward industrial freedom in the bill known as the Home Rule Tax Bill, which would give local option to municipalities with respect to this problem of taxation, so that they might be set free to deal with it as they please. This would lead to discussion and enlightenment from which would proceed, in time, the adoption in our cities of a taxation system that would open up unprecedented industrial opportunities for capital and labor alike. You would not very long need organized charity in the State of New Jersey if you would but create a social and political system founded upon economic justice. I cannot, I regret to say, elaborate upon this for lack of time, but it is because opportunity to-day is fenced in and shut out from the average man or woman that you have made wage slaves, dependents and paupers of great masses of men. Another ominous aspect of our system is the growth of a class-conscious feeling between the House of Have and the House of Want, expressing itself in bitterness and hatred that threatens the very existence of social order and progress. I would have you study this question, and the simple remedy we propose, for in a just taxation system I believe you will not only find the solution of the fiscal question of how best may public revenues be raised, but a safe and certain pathway to a just and prosperous social order, which in time must revivify and regenerate our State.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am sure, after you have heard Senator Hennessy, you will be very glad to be reminded of the fact that for the first time in the history of the Legislature, the Appropriations Committee is going to continue after the adjournment of the regular session, and all during the summer. I think this is a very significant and extremely important fact to remember.

THE CHAIRMAN—The meeting is now open for discussion and I will ask anyone who wishes to speak not to speak more than two or three minutes, as our time is so very short.

Discussion.

Doctor Weeks, I would ask you to open the discussion.

DAVID F. WEEKS, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE NEW JERSEY STATE
VILLAGE FOR EPILEPTICS AT SKILLMAN.

I did not expect to take part in the discussions. My object in attending the Conferences from year to year is to learn something that will be useful to me in conducting the affairs of the New Jersey State Village for Epileptics at Skillman, but as Mrs. Alexander has asked me to talk on "What Class of Dependents Should Be in State Custody?" I shall endeavor to confine my remarks to this topic.

Naturally, the first class of dependents that appeals to me that should be in State custody is the epileptic. He is probably the most dangerous defective with which the community has to deal, in that his acts are more or less impulsive and uncontrollable, and when he commits crimes they are usually brutal ones. He needs the care and protection that comes with State custody.

Between eight and ten per cent. of the crimes committed by juvenile offenders are committed by epileptics. In the school he is a detriment to the normal children, not alone by the reason of the shock produced at the time of his convulsions, but also to the fact that his morals are usually of low order. He is quick to engage in fights which frequently result in serious injuries to the victim of his anger.

At the Village at Skillman, the State has provided, among other things, a school in which each pupil receives as much education as he is capable of taking. One of the most disappointing and discouraging things with which our teachers have to contend is the fact that a single convulsion may efface the work of months; another, the desire to take the patient home when he begins to show progress.

The last session of the Legislature passed an amendment to our law which provides for the discharge of patients as follows:

1. When in the judgment of the Board of Managers the physical condition of the inmate is such that his discharge is not likely to be detrimental to the welfare of the community in which he may reside and that he is not likely to become a public charge.

2. When the treatment has resulted in a cure or the equivalent thereof.

3. When the period of reproductive power is passed.

The law provided that the decision of the Board in reference to the discharge may be reviewed upon certiorari, at which time the Board of Managers are required to produce the family history of the patient as far as it bears on the heredity transmission of epilepsy and the history of the patient while an inmate of the Village, together with reasons why, in the judgment of the Board of Managers, the patient should not be discharged.

A bill was also introduced, but failed to pass, providing for the removal of the restrictions relative to the class of epileptics to be admitted to the Village. It is the intention of the Board of Managers to admit, as rapidly as buildings are provided, all classes of epileptics regardless of any complicating disease or condition. How soon this may be accomplished will depend upon the amendment referred to above and the amount of money appropriated for the buildings.

The various organizations represented in this Conference can assist us in our work by encouraging the commitment of all epileptics and discouraging the applications for their discharge.

When a request is made for a discharge, I am in the habit of advising the people to go to the local charity organizations and get a certificate from the secretary certifying their ability to give the patient proper care.

Other defectives requiring State care are the feeble-minded and defective delinquents. Much of the State's burden will be reduced when provision is made for the proper care of all defectives.

PROF. E. R. JOHNSTONE.

Proper care of its dependents has been one of the serious problems of our State. Lately we have been asking "What Causes Dependency?"

In the institutions for the feeble-minded the admission blanks have asked many questions, endeavoring to find the cause, and frequently we have found tuberculosis, insanity, epilepsy, etc., of the parents assigned.

A careful investigation of these family histories soon showed that about sixty-five per cent. of our pupils are feeble-minded because their parents or some of their ancestors were feeble-minded, and we also find that a large number of people are epileptic because they are feeble-minded; a number are syphilitic because they are too feeble-minded to be morally and physically clean; from forty to sixty per cent. of those in penal institutions are there because they are feeble-minded enough to be so weak in understanding that they are easily led astray; numbers of tramps and paupers are so because their feeble-mindedness prevents their "making good" in society.

If you will imagine a wheel, the hub of which is marked feeble-mindedness and the spokes marked insanity, epilepsy, criminality, sex offenses, pauperism, diseases of neglect, etc., you may form an idea of what our research is bringing to light. Most of these social problems are the results of feeble-mindedness, not the cause of it.

THE CHAIRMAN—I didn't want this Conference to end before hearing a word from Mr. Samuel J. Fort.

MR. SAMUEL J. FORT.

Did you tell where I came from? I am from Burlington county, and we have a lady traveling over Burlington county, looking up the feeble-minded people, and when she made her report she reported that Burlington county presented the highest percentage of feeble-minded people in any county in the State.

I may be one of them and I made up my mind then that was the reason why our county was so supremely Republican.

I would rather talk about tuberculosis than anything else, because we hear so much about tuberculosis coming from dairy cows. I am here to dispute that if anybody wants to argue it with me. I have been interested in the animal industry for forty years and I and my boys are farmers, and some people wonder why I am interested in the production and sale of milk. I am interested, through my sons, in about one hundred and fifty cattle, and we are very careful to select the best cattle we can get and produce a high grade of milk. They passed a law in Philadelphia compelling the people to buy pasteurized milk. Pasteurized milk is embalmed milk with impurities in it. When you get it from a good clean dairy, where everything is sterilized, that milk is good. There is where you get your best milk, produced by the best class of dairymen in the world. I firmly believe that we will have more tuberculosis patients in the next five years than we have to-day, by the way people treat themselves—violating the laws of nature. Whenever you violate the laws of nature you are going to suffer. Can young people go out dressed as they do and dance, getting steaming hot and ride home fifty miles in an automobile without proper wraps? They will never stand it. In my section of the country we have fine-looking girls who have died of tuberculosis. Didn't come from the dairy cow. Its one of the finest things in the world to be born healthy. I can show you little children in my neighborhood, one around my own house, two and a half years old, spent its first summer under the grape arbor—never knew what it was to be sick and never has taken a drop of medicine from a doctor. Don't need it, out of doors every day. In the country is the place to build up the children, to bring them up. Why the doctors are even going to tell us how we should feed our children. I have never been sick but once in my life. I was born healthy, lived out of doors, keep out in the fresh air, sleep with the window up every night, breathe the fresh air of Heaven that is purified and made fresh every day by nature's own hand, the best in the world.

Monday Afternoon, April 20th, 1914.

Topic: "County Problems."

WINSTON PAUL, JERSEY CITY, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—It is a matter of very great gratification to those of us who have been interested in county problems during the past few years, who have been studying county problems and the possibilities of improving county conditions, to know that there has been in the last year such an increased interest and a new manifestation of a desire to know facts about county problems.

We are very fortunate in having with us this afternoon a man who, in my opinion, knows more about the problems of the county than any other man. I take great pleasure in introducing the Executive Secretary of the National Short Ballot Organization, H. S. Gilbertson, who will speak on "Social Reform and the Short Ballot."

Topic: "Social Reform and the Short Ballot."

ADDRESS BY H. S. GILBERTSON, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL SHORT BALLOT ORGANIZATION, NEW YORK CITY.

In attacking any of the problems of relief or correction which come under the head of social reform, it is necessary to vibrate constantly between two perspectives. You must do what you can to relieve immediate distress and you must forecast and forestall future conditions, and lay plans for future constructive policies.

It is on this latter ground that social and political reformers should meet, since it will be practically impossible to accomplish very much in the way of social reform, without changes in the laws and proper machinery for their enforcement. It is for this reason that we in the Short Ballot Organization feel that we are helping in the fight for every social and economic betterment. And I hope to make it clear to you that as social reformers you

should all devote a portion of your energies to simplified government, which is another name for the short ballot; that, as practical men and women, with a practical purpose, you will in the long run be very impractical if you weakly accept the present methods of lawmaking and administration as necessary evils which must be endured indefinitely. I know many social workers who are skillful lobbyists, and it is well that they are so, but in so far as they are failing to displace the very system under which they sometimes obtain some very desirable but very immediate results, they are contributing comparatively little to the sum of human betterment.

Now the constructive political problem whose solution must precede that of the social problem is twofold. We first want a government which will respond to a well-defined public opinion, and secondly, one in which there will be adequate machinery for carrying out the public will in definite acts of administration.

In our organization we have been publishing matter on this subject for a long time. But the other day we had the whole force of our first contention thrown back into our faces in a way that we will never forget. We started a fight to abolish the useless, incompetent and corrupt office of coroner in the city of New York and substitute for it a scientific system of medical examiners. Behind the bill which we presented was apparently a practical unanimous public sentiment. Nearly all of the New York City papers came out with vigorous editorials denouncing the present system and advocating our measure. The Bar Association did likewise. The entire medical profession, as represented in the two medical associations, the Academy of Medicine and the County Medical Society, actively supported our measure. No opposition to the bill appeared on the surface, except from the coroners themselves and a few clerks whose positions would have been rendered perhaps somewhat insecure. What slight criticisms of the bill were made after the public hearing upon it were met, apparently, to the satisfaction of everyone. Now, under a truly representative government, a measure of that kind under such conditions would have gone through without the slightest difficulty. But the thing which actually happened (and it is the normal thing in such cases) was as follows: The Re-

publican County Chairman quite ignored the public sentiment and gave ear to the coroners and their clerks, who, by the way, were carefully protected in the bill itself and had no apparent reason to complain. He was not able, apparently, to secure the support of the New York City Republicans on the Cities Committee in the Assembly, but by a combination of up-State Republicans, who suddenly evinced an astonishing interest in New York City affairs, and Tammany Democrats, he was able to block the measure in committee by one vote. And there the matter ended.

It is such incidents as this that have probably been duplicated in the experience of everyone present, that we must seek to eliminate before any large constructive program of social reform can even be laid out. We must devise a government which will respond to normal pressure and not wait for an avalanche of adverse votes, a government which will have in it a legislative body that will regard the people as the source of their power instead of a pestiferous nuisance.

The other big political problem in which we must all be interested is that of framing a workable, responsible, effective system of administration. Or, to put it plainly, it must not only be possible to get good laws, but we must also have the instruments of enforcement.

I suppose the division of government which most perfectly illustrates the sort of thing which we are objecting to is the county as it is organized, not particularly in this State but throughout the country.

County government sometimes seems to be an absolutely hopeless proposition, and a reason for this is perhaps somewhat different from what you would expect. It is not because it is now so much worse than city or State government, but because there do not inhere in it the same elements for hope. I will explain what I mean. Counties, especially where they are superimposed upon urban communities, are almost wholly concerned in the performance of inconspicuous public duties, in which only a small fraction of the people is at any one time directly concerned. Most of us, for example, are able, for the greater part of the time, to keep off the calendars of the criminal and civil courts,

so it does not harm us particularly if the sheriff draws a crooked jury, or a judge exceeds his powers. Most of us also hope to steer clear of the poorhouse and the county insane asylum, and we prefer not to think on such unpleasant subjects in which neither we nor our friends are directly involved. Apparently, about the only visible and ever-present function of counties is road administration, and in such urban communities as Essex and Hudson counties, we see very little even of that.

What is to be done? Shall we insist that the people take an interest in these things?

Perhaps they should; perhaps they will, at some future time. But the present fact is that they don't. And that is the whole problem of the Short Ballot—to cut the plan of government to fit the actual people or electorate.

Actual county government, on the contrary, is a thorough misfit, because it is built on the theory that the people will and must take a direct concern in the officers which have immediate charge of charitable and correctional institutions. This theory is so very insistent that in nearly all of our States the sheriff, who is virtually the commissioner of correction and the superintendent of the poor, or a corresponding officer, must be elected by the people. This, of course, seems, on paper, to be the purest of democracy. We know that in practice it amounts to something quite different. For since, as has been said, the functions of the sheriff and the superintendent of the poor are so very obscure, and so remote from the daily experience, you have right there one very excellent explanation for bad charities and correctional administration. The voters in general do not bother their heads or take the time to fit the man to the job. In the smaller counties they are perhaps diligent to secure men of decent reputation. In the most populous counties the voter who even recognizes the names of the candidates for these offices is something of a phenomenon, as you will perhaps be surprised to discover, if you attempt to verify my statement. And so it happens that certain functions of extreme importance, but comparatively obscure, are left in the control of public officials who are not chosen by the people themselves, or any responsible rep-

representative of the people, but by a self-appointed party leader. You know the rest. Publicity is very largely missing in the conduct of their offices. Inefficiency always, and gross corruption often, gets headway, simply for the want of the kind of political daylight which usually keeps such conspicuous officials as governors, and mayors of cities, from going very far wrong. But there is another phase of county government which is hopelessly bad. It is such a headless affair! Suppose we could elect the very highest and best qualified men for every county office. Even then the very form of county government would prevent their achieving the best results. There is no strong executive, thoroughly conversant with county needs and on the job all the time to keep the parts of the machine working in harmony, to prevent conflicts of authority and duplications of effort. The board of freeholders can resolve and appropriate, but they cannot compel the sheriff, who is an independent elective officer, to conduct his office in a business-like way. The other county officers can be known to them only in a superficial way. It is only in counties of the first class where the need of something approximating executive leadership is recognized at all. No private business could keep its head above water for a month according to such a plan. Public offices achieve the impossible by gradually forcing up the tax rate and increasing valuations.

The remedy for these conditions we call the Short Ballot, because it proposes, when an officer or his functions are too hopelessly obscure, to take them off the ticket and tie them up to some officer or board of officers who is or are conspicuously responsible to the people. The effect of this is to establish a distinct and unbroken line of accountability from the people through the appointing officer to the subordinates.

Just what officer or board shall this be? That is a question which will be influenced by consideration partly of local conditions and partly of the claims of a uniform State system of administration. In the rural counties it is quite possible that the board of chosen freeholders or county commissioners are sufficiently under the eyes of the voters to be entrusted with the appointment of administrators or charities and correction. But

in the urban counties it is very doubtful if such an arrangement would be an improvement upon the present system. In such communities, so far as the citizens have an interest in public affairs, it is expressed in the activities of the cities rather than the county which is superimposed upon the cities.

A more hopeful solution all around, it seems to me, looking at it as a student of political forces, would be to take charity and correctional administration entirely out of the hands of the county government. The former might well be taken over by the cities in some cases, or in some of its phases, but should certainly be at least under State supervision. Correctional administration, on the other hand, properly belongs to the State. It is possible, of course, to devise a State system, which will be full of politics, in efficiency and obscurity. I am not pleading for that kind of a system, but for one from which political considerations of every kind will be excluded, and in which scientific methods and expert service will be encouraged.

But if, on the other hand, we are to continue holding the counties responsible for important functions, we must make some radical changes in its government.

In the first place, we shall have to recognize the very great difference in the voting efficiency of different types of communities. County voters, without doubt, can carry a greater political load than their city cousins. In the closely populated sections, like Essex and Hudson counties, I am inclined to believe that county functions, to the utmost possible degree, should be turned over to the cities, and that there should be no elective county officials at all. It is far more important to classify counties on the basis of the social composition than by population, as is now the case.

And then, we must take measures to simplify the county government. And simplification necessarily means centralization of authority. Possibly, we shall come sometime to something like the city manager plan, which is now awakening so much attention throughout the country. This plan should commend itself to social workers because of the emphasis which it places on expert public service. Any other kind of administration of the

"social" functions is not only inefficient, but may even create greater abuses than it corrects.

In closing, I want to commend to your thought these principles which I believe should underlie every phase of social work which takes political agencies into account: full publicity, certain and complete accountability, and expert non-political administration.

Topic: "Financial Budgets and the County as a Unit."

ADDRESS BY WINSTON PAUL, JERSEY CITY.

I expected Mrs. Alexander would speak next, but inasmuch as she is busy at the moment, I will refer to that topic which has been put down on the program opposite my name, "Financial Budgets and the County as a Unit." There is so little known, not only in the State of New Jersey, but throughout the whole country, it is well for us to inquire why it costs so much to run our government. I am very much interested in the practical experiment, which I perform from time to time, the experiment of asking the citizens and taxpayers of the various States and counties how much it costs in a given year to maintain, run and operate their county government, and if the occasion is informal enough I put the question to the audience and ask the audience to give me an idea of how much it costs to operate the county government in their county. I asked that question in Elizabeth. The guesses as to how much it cost to run Union county varied from \$70,000 to \$7,000,000.

There is a lack of elemental knowledge, I might almost say, a terrible ignorance of the most important facts concerning county government. We have over three thousand counties in this country that vary in size from counties as large, and larger, than the State of New Jersey, to counties so small that they are contained within the limits of one city. I have been studying county government now for two or three years. I have been studying it more exactly, possibly, than any of you in this room. I have watched county government in this State, particularly, and I have found so very much to astonish me and so very much that

is interesting that I would like to tell you many of the things I have learned about county government in this State, but there has been put down opposite my name "Financial Budgets and the County as a Unit," and I wish this afternoon to confine myself to that particular phase of county and to the cost of county government more particularly.

I will start with a statement that may surprise you, and in order that you may know that it is not a rash statement I have written it out, and the statement with which I wish to preface my remarks is this: The whole system of finance, in so far as it relates to counties in New Jersey, is in need of remedial legislation.

I have arrived at this conclusion by a consideration of the facts which go to make up the financial policy of the county, and I wish to speak particularly of the county budget or the appropriations act. In New Jersey the statutes or the law under which our county budgets are made date from the seventies. The classification in the act of 1878 is out of date. It omits purposes for which moneys are now needed by the various counties. It is obvious that a statute as old as that, over thirty-five years old, could have no premonition and no warning of the new problems, of the new situations, which we are forced to meet and with which we are confronted in this age. In order to meet the purposes of legitimate expenditure not contemplated in the statute of 1878, we have to stretch that statute so as to make it null and void in its purpose. Every county in this State is appropriating money to-day under an act which is no longer worth the paper upon which it is written.

The statute of 1878 shows a clear intention to establish the budget system. What I mean by budget system is the appropriation in advance of fixed amounts of expenditures for public purposes. It is both an authorization of liabilities and a limitation of expenditures. This act of 1878, to my mind, leaves no doubt but that it was the will and intent of the Legislature of New Jersey to establish the budget system. But that act is inadequate to-day.

The laws under which we appropriate moneys for our county government are inadequate in this respect: When these laws

were passed the offices of surrogate, register, county clerk and other county officers were on a fee basis—that is, the register or county clerk collected certain fees and he paid all the expenses of office out of those fees and kept the remainder for himself and grew rich upon the proceeds. By law that has all been changed, and now the register, county clerk, and so forth, are no longer on a fee but on a salary basis, and all the revenues are now paid into the treasury of the county, and the county in turn pays the salaries which are necessary to carry on the work of that office. But the act of 1878 takes no cognizance of this situation; there has not been a single new law passed which will provide for the expenditures on the part of a county which are necessary to carry on this work. In other words, we are operating to-day under a statute which was conceived under an entirely different financial relationship than we are to-day living under. Formerly all the funds needed for county purposes were raised by taxation; to day a very considerable proportion of our county revenues come from the State and from these special sources of income which I have mentioned. The statutes authorizing the expenditure of county funds take no cognizance of these changed conditions. An examination of the affairs of the various counties shows that no two counties have construed alike the exactments and the amendments of the appropriations act. Some counties feel that they have need to appropriate only a specified sum of the county receipts, which sum must be raised by taxation, and they omit from their appropriation bill those amounts for the conduct of their institutions as come from the State. For example, the State of New Jersey reimburses the various counties for the treatment of the insane and tubercular persons who are unable to pay for their treatment. If a certain county received \$50,000 as its allotment, the county board of freeholders, in making the appropriations for the county insane, tubercular, etc., will appropriate not \$200,000 for that institution but will appropriate \$150,000, and you have got to guess at the fact that the institution is receiving money on the side from the State. Now, that is the condition which prevails in certain of our counties.

Also, in certain counties no credit is given in the appropriations bill for the revenues which are received from the register or the

county clerk. In other words, it looks as though from time to time the financial officers of certain of our counties have deliberately sought to conceal the sources of income in order that the true amount of cost of our county offices may not be known to the taxpayers in general. And again, by law, the budget may be passed at the annual meeting of the board of freeholders or at any subsequent meeting, provided same is made not later than the first Tuesday in August. There are cases of counties in this State where the appropriations act has been drafted in January, changed at every monthly meeting of the board of freeholders until the first of August. Imagine a budget system in which the budget is changed five or six times after it has been adopted.

There is another evil which has crept into our county system—the evil of transfer appropriations. In certain counties of this State it has been the practice toward the end of the year to transfer all the balances remaining in the various accounts into one omnibus account called the incidental account, from which all the bills against all the accounts were paid for the remainder of the fiscal year. Transfers have been so frequent as to actually result in a juggling of accounts, all of which defeats the budgetary system.

Now, how do the social workers come in? Why should the social worker be interested in county government. Simply because the county is one of our most important instruments for corrections and charities. I am here to make a plea this afternoon that you should take an interest in the financial condition of your various counties; to make sure that its funds are expended properly; to see not only that the right and full amount is given for correctional and charitable purposes, but also that too large amounts are not given in ways which will be wasted.

So I say that the financial budgets of counties is one evidence of the statement with which I started, that the whole system of financing, in so far as it relates to counties, is in need of immediate remedial legislation. It is a well-established principle of business, every business man knows it, that every half year, or at least once a year, the business should make a financial statement showing its assets and liabilities.

What are the financial reporting methods in a county? In the larger counties of this State it has been the habit to publish books containing over one thousand pages and giving much unnecessary detail. A few months ago I went to the financial officers of Hudson county and showed them where they were annually preparing a book which was costing an enormous sum for printing and giving little information of value. They agreed to have it condensed and this year have published a book of fifty or seventy pages, which gives vastly more information than in the past, but they are doing that in absolute violation of the law.

The methods of financial reporting in the State of New Jersey are as antiquated as are the requirements for making up the budget, and the situation is the same so far as the bookkeeping methods of our counties are concerned.

Some time ago I made an effort to compare statistics of Hudson and Essex counties. I found I had to make the comparison a third time and fourth time, because the methods of bookkeeping in the two counties varied so greatly that amounts charged to one account had nothing to do, in another county, with amounts charged to the same account. It was only after many weary months' work and labor we were able to finish my booklet. The methods of financial accounting are obviously in need of very prompt and very careful revision.

In the last place, I wish to call your attention, while on this subject of financial methods of New Jersey, to the fact that at the present time, under our State laws, there is no adequate or other check upon our financial officials. For example, the sheriff receives and expends large sums of money and yet there is no audit made of his books. Until recently there was a very inadequate audit made of the books of the board of freeholders in most of our counties. In Hudson county it is only recently that an audit has been made. Even to-day the accounts of the sheriff of Hudson are not audited.

I have tried to give you this picture of the real condition of affairs which relates to the finances of our counties, because I want you to feel and know, if you don't already appreciate, that every dollar that is misspent of public funds means a dollar

less for some necessary and worthy object for the betterment of the people. When officials falsify their books; when they graft from the public they take away from the people an opportunity for progress and for development, and it behooves the social workers who have the social viewpoint and men of every class, all people in the community, to be alive and alert to the activities of the county, to watch and see to it that every dollar of the public funds are efficiently and economically expended in the wisest possible manner.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am asked to interpose at this point a discussion of the various points which have been brought up and I will therefore throw open the meeting for discussion.

If any of the persons in the audience wish, I believe that Mr. Gilbertson would be glad to speak upon any point that we may not have made clear in our addresses.

Discussion.

MR. McDUGALL, Newark—Mr. Gilbertson suggested the transfer of county funds to municipalities as a part of his scheme and I wondered just how you could avoid county action.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am glad that point has been raised. I consider that the most important point in Mr. Gilbertson's review. I remember in Mr. Gilbertson's paper, and I take the liberty of re-reading that part of Mr. Gilbertson's speech—I think it is a very significant point and I am very glad Mr. McDougall has raised the discussion on that point. First, I will read that particular point of Mr. Gilbertson's paper. (Reading "A more hopeful solution all around," etc.)

MR. GILBERTSON—In making that point I had in mind particularly the urban counties. In the State of New York and the northeastern States, and I think New Jersey possibly, the function of charities is taken care of by counties and partly by the cities. In New York we have a distinction between county and town poor, inasmuch as in some communities it has gone over to the cities, while it seems to me if the cities attend to it better

it might as well take over the whole thing. As I pointed out in the latter part of my paper, in this whole county problem you have to make a distinction between the urban counties and the rural counties. It does not seem as if there was any other unit in the rural counties than the county itself which could handle the question of charities, and please bear in mind that particular reference was in respect to charities, and particularly in urban counties like Hudson and Essex.

MR. McDUGALL—The proposition as originally made was to provide for county overseers of the poor instead of local poor-masters.

THE CHAIRMAN—The question or proposition which Mr. McDougall has raised is this, that in drafting the poor law of this State they decided to put in a proviso that there should be a county overseer of the poor, in order to correlate all the work in reference to the poor in the various localities instead of having local poormasters who might be working in different ways.

MR. ELMENDORF—I couldn't hear what Mr. McDougall said, but I fail to see what we are going to gain by this change which is, perhaps, evident to those who know the difficulties that we have to contend with. If we are going to advocate a change we ought to know for what reason the municipal or State authorities would do the work any more effectually.

THE CHAIRMAN—Mr. Elmendorf has raised the important point that the burden—if we are to put it on the county officials—is on the State officials to prove that they are going to perform the work more efficiently than at the present time.

MR. GILBERTSON—My point is this, that since county government bids fair always to be inconspicuous and very difficult to control, it seems to me that we should put those funds in the hands of officials—should put it into a position of government which seems more likely to produce efficiency than is the case with the county. I think the counties are hopeless so far as these funds are concerned. I am not raising the question about the charities and corrections, as they are entirely out of my field.

and I have not studied them at all, but I believe that the situation in other States shows the proposition throughout the country—it seems to me the first work in charitable administration is done by the cities. You can get an interest in cities, in the government, but I have yet to find an instance where you can get a studied interest in county government; and since these funds are so obscure to the average citizen and held at such great possibilities of abuse it seems to me they should be turned over to the cities or States, because in these units more efficient methods are in use.

MR. McDOUGALL—Isn't it possible to educate your county officials and your county people in county government? Are there not two examples in this State of an attempt to arouse an interest? We have in Essex county a committee which is just now, with the help of Bureau of Municipal Research, undertaking to arouse public interest in public problems; they have a pretty fair prospect of succeeding. Does not that seem to be a more hopeful thing, rather than to accept as impossible county interest that bears on some other form of political interest?

THE CHAIRMAN—The points that have been raised by Mr. McDougall and the speaker from Morris county are questions as to whether or not it is possible to rouse such an interest in county government that would make county government an effective instrument of the things which we wish to do, and we have heard something from Essex county to the effect that such an effort is being made in that county. I wish to read just a paragraph from an article which I wrote for a magazine on this very point which Mr. McDougall has raised:

(Reading) That is where the problem arises. It is possible in Essex and Hudson counties, and we have succeeded in getting an interest on the part of a certain small number of people in the problems of county government—to get an understanding of what is wrong in county government, but it is not true so far as that relates to the great mass of voters. In any State and city election, citizens have voted for a man who may be well-known in one part of the county while the rest of the county

may be ignorant of him. Now, that is my answer to the point Mr. McDougall has raised, *i. e.*, as to whether or not it is possible to get the public to take a deeper interest in county government.

I see that Mrs. Alexander is now here, and will, therefore, take pleasure, not in introducing Mrs. Alexander because she is already so well-known to us in New Jersey, but in announcing Mrs. Alexander as the next speaker, on the topic "Widows' Pensions."

Widows' Pensions.

ADDRESS BY MRS. CAROLINE B. ALEXANDER.

The subject assigned to me this afternoon is that of widows' pensions, a subject which has been much discussed all over the country for the last two or three years, and more particularly in New Jersey, because, as you know, we have had in New Jersey, since the fourth of last July, a law under which widows' pensions have been, for a short time, administered. This administration was put in the hands of a board called the Board of Children's Guardians, instituted about thirteen years ago, to take over the charge of all the dependent children in the State of New Jersey. I want you to bear in mind that the administration of the law in New Jersey is in charge of a board already in existence and doing a work which is in a sense like, and in another sense unlike, the new work of widows' pensions.

I thought I would begin by telling you the story of a family from the town where I live. I have known them a long time, personally. The father was a man who worked as an unskilled laborer. As far as I ever knew, the only thing against him was an occasional lapse from sobriety. The mother was a remarkable woman, a very hard-working woman. She came to live in Hoboken with her five little children and husband. The husband dropped dead, and she was left with the five children, and another which was born after her husband's death. I can tell you the story of that whole family. Of those six children four were

girls and two boys. One daughter is married, and absolutely satisfactory in every way. The other daughter is married too well—she and her husband consider themselves so much above the condition into which my friend and her children have dropped that they will have nothing to do with her mother and brothers and sisters. Of the other daughters, two ran away to be married, one is living apart from her husband; the other one was divorced, has remarried and is living apart from her husband. The two boys both have been arrested many times for theft and for crimes of violence. One son died of tuberculosis, leaving an illegitimate child. This woman, whom I know myself, made every possible effort to work, to work hard. In spite of all that, because she had to go out for all those years and earn what was necessary for the children, that family has gone to pieces. It is not the fault of that woman's character, nor of her intentions, nor of her efforts, but it seems to be a lack of confidence, a lack of intimate relation between her and her children. From the time they were little tots she had to be out all day long scrubbing and cleaning. Now, if anyone of her friends see her on the street she looks the other way rather than to meet anyone who has known her, because she feels so thoroughly discouraged at the way her children have turned out. I think that would be an excellent example of where the pension might be applied. After all, it is in prevention that we are going to succeed. No one could tell how much the pension would have helped that woman, or many other families. The great question seems to be, "Does the State owe to each individual the opportunity for the pursuit of happiness, afforded through home-training, as a preparation for life's work?" If so, where are we going to stop? Why stop with widows? Why should the grandmothers, why should the deserted wives, why should the unmarried mothers be thrust on the charity of others? In Hudson county we have put aside \$20,000 for this coming fiscal year for the pensions to mothers, and nobody knows where it is going to stop. It seems to me the only way we can get this programme accepted is by proving that every single dollar appropriated by the counties for the support of the children and by the State for the administration

of that support, is going to be used up to 100 per cent. of its capacity.

I am going to try to give you some account of what has been done in New Jersey, and what we hope to do in the future, with the generous sum which the appropriation committee has now put at our disposal. First of all, I think I may speak of what was done by the Board of Guardians, looking towards solving this situation, before the Pension Law was passed. We found that many dependent children were placed in our care where the mother or some other relative was frequently the best person to take charge of the children. For several years back the Board of Guardians has been actually paying board to mothers and other relatives for children. Then a bill was introduced by Senator Nichols which created mothers' pensions, but differing in several important respects from the bill subsequently passed. This bill did not contain any specific provisions as to the administration of the pensions. A hearing was held, and the bill subsequently amended, so as to place the duty of investigating all petitions for pensions, of making reports of these investigations to the judges at the hearing, and of the subsequent oversight of the homes of pensioned mothers, in the hands of the Board of Guardians, and also restricting the benefits to widows.

I think if we are going to have widows' pensions in New Jersey, it was well that the only State board which had to do with the care of children in the State should have been designated as the one to carry out the provisions of the act. So the law went into effect July 1st, 1913, and hearings were immediately begun. At these hearings the Board of Guardians attempted to present to the judges a report of the result of investigations into the cases of all such widows as had previously filed their petitions with the county clerk and the Board of Guardians. This went on until February, and during that time the number of petitions investigated was six hundred and fifty-eight; the number of families pensioned, three hundred and twenty-six. You see just about fifty per cent. of the pensions were thrown out by the judges. The number of children committed was nine hundred and twenty-two; the number of hearings held, fifty-two,

in the various counties; the amount paid out in pensions, \$5,557 per month, or \$68,884 per year. These hearings were held as often as we possibly could get our material together, and we soon found out several things. In the first place, that we had too few agents to do the work, because we had been obliged to cover the State of New Jersey as well as we could by detailing from the corps of agents employed by the Board of Guardians three of our best investigators to do this work. We also found that they were attempting to investigate an average of twenty-one cases a week. We believe that where this work is thoroughly done it should not average more than six or seven cases a week. The investigators and Miss Day used the very last ounce of their endurance and strength in trying to accomplish a task impossible for any human being to accomplish. We found that. We found, also, that the traveling expenses were very high in trying to follow up these cases. We did not have agents to do the work and we did not have the money to do it with, because we had no money given to us by the Appropriations Committee for this new work. We could not feel that we were getting thorough information for the judges, and we felt, also, that we were not keeping in close enough touch with the families pensioned. We made up our minds that the best way out of it was to be perfectly frank with the judges, and in January our board wrote a letter to all of them setting forth what had happened; that the work had accumulated enormously; that there were about twice as many petitions on file in the counties as those we had been able to look up; that petitions came in all the time; and that we, therefore, felt that the only way to make any sort of headway at all was to stop the hearings. This the judges consented to do. That was a very unpleasant duty, and yet we felt on the whole it was the choice of evils. It would be better to do that than keep on piling in more and more children, when we could not do justice to those already in our care. The hearings were stopped the first of February, and from that time on we have tried to keep in touch with the children on our list, who now number nine hundred and thirty-three. The number of children

visited during the month of March was two hundred and thirty-five. That's what we are doing now with our agents.

From now on begins another situation, because we hope to have support for as good a department as can be found in any State doing this special work. In order to do that we asked the Appropriations Committee to give us enough money to establish the work. As soon as the money is available we intend to clean up the accumulated cases, of which I think there are about one thousand on file not attended to.

In our short experience with trying to administer this law, we have found a great variety of types among the mothers. We found the good manager and the bad manager. We found quite a number of feeble-minded mothers. Those homes evidently will have to be broken up, because it is an injustice to leave a child in such a home. We find many women whose homes are clean, many who are untidy, some who are religious, some who are not. We find women who are very quick to take advice of our agents and others who resent it. There are a great many mothers who are going to be very difficult to bring into line in accepting the advice which they undoubtedly need. We find some who are pitifully broken down by the struggle they have put up and others amply able to take care of their home.

I want to point out to you one very important difference between the administration of this law and the administration of the Board of Guardians law. You know the Board of Guardians chooses the family into which it places the dependent child, and it is a rare exception when a child can be placed with its own relatives. The family must come up to a certain standard or it is not accepted. In the Mothers' Pension work we have no option at all. We must place the child in the home of its own mother, therefore our duty is to bring that home up to our standard. Thus the problem seems to run back again to the home, because if we do not bring up the standard of the home, we are simply adding to the list of almsgiving agencies. In order to do this we shall be striving with our newly organized department; first, for a very thorough investigation, in which

we are going to point out several things, in addition to a description of the physical surroundings—the influence of the home, the moral tone of the home, the character of the mother, as far as we can find it out, everything that will shape the judge's opinion of that home as being a poor or good place for the child to remain. We shall be obliged to allow the mother to supplement the income which we give her. We shall form a budget for the family. The agents will make up the amount—what it should cost that family to live. Then we shall try to ascertain the medical and scientific care needed, and you know how difficult it is to persuade some people to have their children properly taken care of. Then we are very anxious to get in close touch with all the private institutions doing work in the State—charity organizations, children's societies—all the different private organizations in the State, because we know we will never make a success of this work unless we work in close co-operation with them. We are going to arrange for a conference with all the child-caring agencies in the State and find out some plan by which we can all together care for these children.

One thing that we are finding, also, is the enormous number of women who ought not to be dependent—those who become widows through preventable causes. We find that many petitions state the cause of death of the husband as tuberculosis, accidents. We know that we are going to run back in this work to fundamental things—preservation of life rather than the attempt at relief. The second thing that we find out is that the proportion of administration expenses to the amount of the pension granted will be startlingly large. Our board feels that the only frank way is to acknowledge this and to give reasons which we consider valid. These reasons being that we believe the only way to justify the large expense to the taxpayers involved in any pension plan is to insure, first, a preliminary investigation so thorough that none except the deserving shall receive a pension, and secondly, that the homes shall be so frequently and understandingly visited that through the influence and advice of our agents these homes may become training places for future citizens.

This is our standard and nothing short of this will satisfy the

Board of Guardians. Only with the help and co-operation of such agencies as are represented in this audience can this standard be achieved.

THE CHAIRMAN—Mrs. Alexander also has offered to answer any questions or you may take the form of discussion if you prefer.

A DELEGATE—I would like to ask Mrs. Alexander if the State Board of Children's Guardians, as the guardian of the child, can insist that certain things be done? The second question is whether the judge can grant a pension for one child when the widow may have perhaps five children.

MRS. ALEXANDER—The Judges often grant a pension for one of two children when there may be more than that in the home.

THE DELEGATE—Does that mean they can give as low as four dollars a month?

MRS. ALEXANDER—No, they must give \$9 for one child. The other question: The Board of Guardians does not become the legal guardian of the child as it does become of the dependent child. I think the mother still continues to be the legal guardian of that child, and I think the only way we can change that is to make such a report to the judge as would convince him that the mother was an unfit custodian of the child.

THE DELEGATE—You would not have the right, then, to remove an epileptic child to Skillman if the mother was not willing to sign a paper?

MRS. ALEXANDER—No, I think not. I think there could be only a report made to the judge.

MR. MCDUGALL—May I ask if it is part of your plan to keep records?

MRS. ALEXANDER—That is very much our plan. We hope to finally arrive at a set of blanks for reports, compiled from every available source and from our own experiences, which will be as complete and scientific as anything of that kind can be made.

MR. McDUGALL—Do you have a special person, whose work would be to utilize all these facts gathered?

MRS. ALEXANDER—We hope to do that. How long would you feel that we ought to have facts gathered before we give out conclusions? That is, of course, our purpose eventually. I think it would be a little difficult to make up one's mind how soon data would be useful. Wouldn't you feel that a family might change very much from year to year?

A DELEGATE—I would like to ask if any other agency can do the supervising with the State Board of Guardians?

MRS. ALEXANDER—As I understand it, the report on which the judge grants or denies the petition must be made on the responsibility of the Board of Guardians. That is the first investigation. I think we want to make clear that we have not the right, under the law, to accept anybody else's investigations or facts on that first or preliminary report to the judge. The board is directly responsible to the authorities, to the Governor, and charity organizations or private organizations, no matter how excellent their work is, are private not official agencies.

A DELEGATE—May I ask whether the mother must be absolutely destitute?

MRS. ALEXANDER—That is a very distressing feature of the law. The law provides that she should be. Some judges have decided that she must not have one single cent left, others have granted the pension when the widow still has a small amount left on hand out of insurance or other funds. The determining facts would be whether the widow showed symptoms of being thrifty or a spendthrift.

A DELEGATE—I would like to ask, in case a judge is not the person granting the pension, whether the State board has ever considered who would be the proper person to do so?

MRS. ALEXANDER—I didn't want to imply that the judge wasn't the proper person.

A DELEGATE—I mean by that question that the determination

of the amount should be by the probation officer, which I judge is the way it is administered in the State of Illinois and Washington. What I mean to say is that the administration through a board which has only to do with unfortunate dependent children is far better than to have the matter in charge of the probation officer.

MRS. ALEXANDER—There was a bill which would give a juvenile court judge the right to decide upon the pension. I think in some States there are commissions of citizens appointed in the different counties who decide on whether the pension should be granted. That would be a way of getting it away from the judges, but in New Jersey I cannot think of any better way than the present one. I think it would be interesting to hear some of the others.

A DELEGATE—Does not the present law provide for a referee?

MRS. ALEXANDER—Yes, a judge can direct that, but it has only been done once or twice. It is a very curious thing—the difference in the hearings between the small counties and the large ones. In the small counties a judge has known the widow and the husband and the family and all the circumstances for many years, while, of course, in larger counties the widows are generally strangers to the judges.

A DELEGATE—Wouldn't you think that chamber proceedings would be better than court proceedings?

MRS. ALEXANDER—I think so. I believe it was a very cruel thing the way those cases have been heard in large counties. Women have to come up in the court-room, appear before the judge and tell their story. I suppose a reason back of that is that anyone objecting would have a right to know and see who was claiming a pension and have the right to object. So far the judges have decided to hear the case in open court.

A DELEGATE—Did you also give the six visits a year?

MRS. ALEXANDER—In many cases we ought to visit once a week, sometimes almost every day, to get things going right. For the first few months the visiting is harder; you cannot go too often.

A DELEGATE—Are the judges assuming that the woman who has been supporting her family by going to work, and is not broken down, comes under the law?

MRS. ALEXANDER—There again, I think there is a great divergence in the opinions of the judges. I have seen cases which appear to me to be absolutely identical treated in exactly the opposite way by the different judges. Some judges are very much more liberal and allow the pension more than the others.

A DELEGATE—What wages are a widow supposed to make?

MRS. ALEXANDER—She is supposed not to make enough to keep her family. If she had a very large family and made six or seven dollars a week that would not be enough. For one it would be.

A DELEGATE—How far would you feel it desirable that the various churches should co-operate?

MRS. ALEXANDER—To the utmost extent. I think we have always made it a point to use that as one of the first sources of information—we would go to the church to find out the applicant's character and whether she was a deserving woman, and so forth. On our subsequent visits every possible effort would be made to interest the family in the church to which they belong and to interest the church in the family. The policy of the Board of Guardians has always been to bring religion into the lives and character of its charges.

THE CHAIRMAN—It may be that there are some here who are desirous of knowing more about county government. I am glad to say that during the first year there has sprung up quite a lot of literature and information on county government which is available for distribution.

I am sure we have listened to a very interesting discussion of a very important problem and how we are to obtain better results. I wish to mention just one fact which I will leave with you—that is, that incompetency and inefficiency in government is a challenge to citizenship. An indifferent public means a public so selfish as to be completely absorbed in its own business and personal affairs—such a situation is a challenge to the social sense of any community.

Monday Evening, April 20th, 8 P. M.

Topic: "Municipal Problems."

MRS. LEWIS S. THOMPSON, RED BANK, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am very glad to have a chance to speak in Monmouth county. To-night we have two very unusual opportunities to hear two very unusual speakers, Mr. Harris R. Cooley, of Cleveland, Ohio, and Mr. F. H. Tracey, of Montpelier, Vermont. Mr. Cooley is going to speak to us first. He, for ten years, has been in the municipal government and has practically been in charge of every department of public charities. I feel it is a great honor to introduce Mr. Cooley.

A City in the Life-Saving Business.

ADDRESS BY HARRIS R. COOLEY, DIRECTOR OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, CLEVELAND.

One of the most promising developments of our time is the increasing interest in the poor and unfortunate. Man is being exalted above mammon. Our cities have grown up with the more prosperous people living in one section by themselves and the children of want and misery living in congested quarters by themselves. The trouble is more a want of knowledge and thought than a want of heart. In some parts of New York they are living twelve hundred to the acre. If all the people of the world were so congested they would be crowded into the little State of Delaware. These slum districts are breeding places of vice, crime and disease. Unless we can solve our questions of human poverty, wretchedness and misery, all that is so glorious in our progress must be lost. The slum problem is really our civilization problem. The question of conservation of human life which has arisen on the social and political horizon is the promise of a better day for our country and for humanity.

In the development of the social feeling and consciousness lies

the only hope of the solution of our living questions. The power of the group is the new force for human betterment. The resources and strength of a city are more than that of thousands of individuals. This super power can accomplish easily the things which baffle the individual. Only the strength of a nation could build the Panama canal.

This principle is illustrated by our municipal waterworks. In the country every man digs his own well and thus supplies the family's wants, but in our city of Cleveland we use our combined power and dig tunnels and lay pipes and secure engines capable of pumping a hundred million gallons of water per day. The city supplies the water to our people at the rate of seven barrels for one cent. In securing this water how impotent we are as individuals and how powerful we are as a group. Take for another example tuberculosis. Your neighbor has tuberculosis. How little you can really do as an individual to permanently help him, but the combined power of the municipality can build a hospital in the country, can take care of the man and look after his family and in many cases can restore him to strength and health. The city of Berlin has spent four million dollars for its tuberculosis sanatorium at Berlitz, thirty miles out in the pine forests.

This mysterious power has also its spiritual expression. There was a fire on one of the city streets. As the fire department came there appeared a little child at one of the upper windows. A ladder was run up to the window and a fireman started up. A volume of smoke came from a lower window covering the upper part of the ladder. The fireman looked at the black smoke and halted. The chief turned to the multitude on the street and shouted, "Cheer him; cheer him!" and from five thousand throats there came a great cheer. The fireman climbed through the smoke and in a moment slid down the ladder with the child in his arms. Somehow the courage of the multitude had entered into the man's heart so that he was not afraid.

In his wonderful description of the Fall of the Bastille, Carlyle represents the old servant of the King, DeLaunay, ready to light the powder magazine and blow up those who were attack-

ing and those who were defending the Bastille, but a great cry of protest came from the multitude outside, and DeLaunay could not light the powder magazine.

The time has come when we must meet our modern problems with this new combined superstrength. With the old individual methods we are helpless, and the outlook is hopeless. With these new social forces applied, the future is full of hope. Individually, we are impotent; together, we are almost omnipotent.

It was with the feeling that the city was not doing its best for its children of misfortune that Cleveland purchased a great tract of two thousand acres in the country, and on this three square miles of land have located the infirmary or almshouse group of buildings on the Colony Farm, the tuberculosis sanatorium on the Overlook Farm and the house of correction buildings on the Correction Farm, and also laid out a great municipal cemetery, to be developed by our prison labor. Each one of these estates consists of five hundred acres. The settlements are entirely distinct. The Colony Group being one and a half miles from the Correction Group. These combined estates give two thousand acres of normal, beautiful environment for the wreckage of a city.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE MOVEMENT.

Underneath this movement back to the land are simple fundamental principles. The first is that normal environment has a strong tendency to restore men to normal physical, mental and moral conditions. Whether people are abnormal in body or mind or heart, it is the part of wisdom to place them in the open-air life and the normal environment of the country. This form of treatment will not always cure, but its efficiency is being recognized more and more in tuberculosis, insanity, and all other forms of abnormal development.

The second principle is that the land furnishes the largest opportunities for the aged and defective to use, whatever powers and talents they may possess. In shop and factory the man who cannot do his full work is crowded out. Upon the land the

man past their prime, the crippled, the weak, can always find some useful work. "Idleness is the heaviest of all oppression."

There are seven buildings in the Colony Group for our almshouse people. They are of the Spanish mission style of architecture. Our political enemies called them the "Moorish palaces." The central or service building covers an acre of ground, and has a large open court and cloister with a fountain. Some objection has been raised to providing such a comfortable place on the ground that these people have done something wrong or they would not be in the almshouse. There are also a good many people on the outside who are having a comfortable time in their old age with plenty of money who have also done wrong somewhere sometime in their lives. The bent backs and the swollen joints show that they have done their share of the world's work. The only fair question is what we would like if the misfortune should come to us or, worse still, if it should come to those dependent upon us. The golden rule should be the rule of society in dealing with its unfortunate.

THE OLD COUPLES' COTTAGE.

There is a separate building for the home for aged couples. The eight rooms on the first floor have outside French windows, giving the effect in summer of a cozy cottage by itself. This is their humble home as long as both shall live. The motto of the home is: "To lose money is better than to lose love." Over the fireplace in their living-room are the words of Browning in Rabbi Ben Ezra:

"Grow old along with me,
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was made:
Grow old, nor be afraid."

This is the message of the great social heart of Cleveland speaking to her children of misfortune.

With the removal of the six hundred of our almshouse people, aged, depressed, crippled in body and mind, there began to ap-

pear at once a new hope for life. The old quarters in the city had been a comfortable place to go to die. The new is a place in which to live in some comfort the declining years of their lives. From inmates of an almshouse, they became residents of the Colony Farm. The fields, gardens and orchards invite to useful work out of doors.

A few years ago the Japanese government sent to our country forty or fifty of her brightest men to study our industries and institutions. When they came to Cleveland, Baron Shibusawa, the head of the delegation, asked to visit our Farms. On our return to the hotel he said to me, through his interpreter, "Since coming to America, they have shown to us wonderful mills and factories, beautiful banks and business places, but the most interesting thing which I have seen is the Colony Farm out on the hill at Warrensville." The next day he sent me a fine letter, and in the letter were two fifty-dollar bills for the old folks, that they might have a happier time at Christmas. After that I was looking for more Japanese to take out to the Farms.

At the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction last summer, twelve hundred delegates spent a day at the Farms. Many of them came to me saying how fine it was for the old people to have so comfortable a home. I said to them, "That is true, but to me the larger part of the blessing will come to the city of Cleveland in its consciousness of dealing more justly and generously with its children of misfortune." One of the church societies sent out a hundred shawls for our old ladies at the Farm. Of course, they were very much pleased, but I have always maintained that it did the women of the church a little more good than it did the old ladies out at the Farm. Society cannot do a generous deed unless the blessing comes back to its own life, good measure, pressed down and shaken together and running over.

At Christmas time we thought to give a little holiday cheer to our old people, and sent out some letters asking for help, thinking that we would receive probably three hundred dollars. The checks came pouring in until over nine hundred dollars in money and many other gifts had been received. This is significant because

it manifests the change of attitude on the part of the city toward the unfortunate.

THE CITY AND THOSE IN PRISON.

The changed attitude on the part of our city is also manifest toward the criminal. Our dealing with the offenders has been largely pagan. There has been a criminal treatment of crime. In the modern betterment of the conditions and opportunities of life the prisoner has been overlooked. Progress has halted at the iron doors. The old torture idea has lingered long in the common thought of punishment. The traditional feeling is that severe and painful punishment exterminates wrong thoughts and actions.

In every large city there is a class of minor offenses against good order and municipal ordinances and regulations which have been punished in a crude, unjust and often cruel manner. The cases are hurried through the police courts, and the victims hauled off in wagon loads for punishment in workhouses. Society has intermittent and senseless spasms of indignation against this class of offenders, but has really taken little practical interest in them and the problems which they present. They are poor, weak, mentally and morally defective, and very human.

Having been called from the active ministry to the head of the municipal department of charities and correction, I suddenly found myself face to face with three hundred prisoners in the workhouse, with the responsibility of their treatment. As I looked into the faces of these prisoners, there came to me this challenge, "Dare you put into practice with these men and women the gospel which you have been preaching from the pulpit?" It was one of the most serious questions I had ever been called upon to face.

I went to Mayor Johnson, saying to him that a change of methods would raise a storm of protest. He said to me, "If it is the right thing to do, do it anyway." And so in his first administration we pardoned and paroled eleven hundred and sixty men and women from our House of Correction. In the previous

administration only eighty-four had been pardoned. Of course, the radical change raised a storm of protest from the press, and even from the pulpit. Many good people seemed surprised that the gospel of human kindness really worked.

Mercy is not an afterthought in religion. The vision which came to Moses was the Lord God full of compassion and graciousness, slow to anger and plentious in mercy, and the Great Teacher taught that we should forgive seventy times seven. When they lifted Him upon the cross, He prayed that His enemies should be forgiven.

If we are to deal fairly with the offenders, we must know, as Victor Hugo says, "the path up which the crime has come" and sometimes to know all is to forgive all. Some of our visitors have expressed surprise, saying that "the prisoners really look like the men outside." If they are hurt on the machinery they bleed, and their blood is red like ours.

There are only two reasons which justify the confinement of men and women in prison: the first, the protection of society; the second, the good of the criminal. All thought of revenge should be put away in a civilized community. Severity and brutality of punishment has never decreased crime. A hundred years ago, in Great Britain, there were two hundred offenses punishable by death. This was thought necessary in order to repress and restrain the criminal class. If the execution of men and women has marked deterrent effect on crime, then to have private executions is to hide a light under a bushel. By the law of suggestion, brutal, revengeful punishment arouses thoughts of violence and blood. The method of severity and torture is not necessary either to protect society or to cure the criminal. For its own sake a city cannot afford to be brutal even to its weakest, meanest man or woman. At the time of the passing of King Edward, and the coming of the new King, instead of liberating a few chosen prisoners, a reduction was made of the time of the entire prison population. Five hundred years was thus at one stroke cut off from their total time of confinement, and it was significantly stated that no evil result followed from this act of goodwill.

When the apostle said, "If thine enemy hunger, feed him," he was expressing a good social law. The best way for society to destroy its enemies is to make honest citizens. The simple story of mercy and kindness of the Nazarene has done more to lift men and women out of vice and crime than all the jails and penitentiaries and hangman's ropes combined. The emblem of the coming power is not a lion as with Great Britain, a bear as with Russia, an eagle as with us, but the emblem of the coming power is a Lamb which is in the midst of the Throne.

The awakening to the magnitude and vital importance of this problem has been slow and slothful. We spend money like water for punishment. While at the head of the police department, a voucher came through one day for twenty-one dollars for a Book of Thieves. I said to my secretary, "Why is this? I can buy a Book of Saints, bound in morocco, for a dollar." In this country we are expending for the detection and punishment of crime probably a thousand million dollars a year—as much as for education, charity and religion combined. This enormous expenditure is devoted to one-tenth of one per cent. of our population. More than this, many of our penal methods and institutions are training first offenders for a criminal life. In the face of these facts, the general indifference in regard to this subject is difficult to explain. Winston Churchill recently declared in the House of Commons that "the attitude of the public in regard to the treatment of crime and criminals is one of the best tests of the civilization of any people."

We are so apt to feel that those in prison are of a different class from ourselves. They are outcasts from society with whom we have nothing in common and with whom we want nothing to do. We do not see them in their family relations with the human past and the possibilities of the human future. They still belong to the fellowship of the common life, only they have been engulfed by storms and undercurrents which perhaps would have wrecked the best of us. In this injustice the women have suffered most. The treatment of those who have, in the face of low wages and great temptations, gone down the path of shame, this treatment is one of the saddest things in our social and religious life.

A recent report of our parole officer shows that during the ten weeks previous 188 men and women were on parole; 162 reported employed; 26 were still unemployed; the total amount of earnings of the 162 for ten weeks was \$8,810.30.

In the eyes of the law these men were still prisoners, but instead of being confined to the cells they were given opportunity to go out and work for themselves and their families.

For most of the prisoners who are held in the House of Correction we have outdoor work on the great farm. They are quarrying the stone, underdraining the land, clearing out the forests and doing general farm work. The guards are really foremen who are leaders of the groups of men. Most of the men appreciate the privilege and serve out their sentences working in the fields under the open sky. That the method of outdoor treatment of crime really works is a surprise to many good people, yet we all know that if we can touch the latent sense of honor in any man, we have touched a power stronger than prison bars. I had said that I thought fifty per cent. of our men could work outside. At times we have worked over eighty per cent. of our prisoners under the open sky. It is much better for them and we have found it much more productive for the municipality.

The money value of the Correction Farm products for 1913 was over \$22,000. This will increase as the resources of the land are developed.

We have a night school which helps to equip them to take their place in society, and when they go out we have the Brotherhood Home which furnishes them a comfortable place to stay until they can get on their feet again. In seventeen months these men, whom some have declared as worthless, paid into the Brotherhood Home for board and room over \$10,000 which they earned by honest labor in the shops and factories of Cleveland.

A general change of attitude toward the so-called "criminal classes" is the fundamental thing which is happening. Prophetic minds have heralded the new spirit of human fellowship, and here and there individuals have had faith to try the discipline of kindness. Some are seeing the vision of the possibility and wisdom of preventing and curing the crime. The new probation and

parole systems show that the social conscience is growing sensitive. Society is asking: whether, by its own neglect, it is not in many cases a partner in the wrongdoing. Even the family of the prisoner is becoming a burden on the new conscience. The body social is feeling that the good of the weakest erring member is the concern of all. Vice and crime are men and women going wrong, and not offensive refuse which you can "clean up" as from an alley or a backyard.

THE BOYS' HOME.

On another farm of four hundred and fifty acres, twenty-three miles from the city, we have our Boys' Home. Eight cottages with master and matron and sixteen boys in each cottage. They call him Pa and her Ma, and it is the first home life that some of these lads have ever known. Our group of cottages is like a country village with many boys. They study and work and play and respond to the normal environment by developing into active, normal, fun-loving boys.

One of our lads for whom we had found a position in the city came to our parole officer saying, "Someone made a mistake and put \$13 too much in my pay envelope. What shall I do? I need the money." The parole officer replied, "You must decide, Steve, what is the right thing to do." The next day the parole officer went to the shop where the lad worked and the foreman called to him saying, "I want to tell you what Steve did this morning. He brought me \$13 and said someone had "put it into my pay envelope by mistake." I think it was partly the moral teaching and partly the blue sky and the clouds and the trees and the ripening fruit and grain and the playground which had developed the normal boy who did not want a thing for which he had rendered no service. The boy was sent down to the farm for stealing. He is now a young artist about to study abroad.

The city has been wasteful of the human life of the children of the slums. Angelo found a neglected block of marble at Florence and out of it carved the wonderful statue of David. Out of the slums of our city we may be able to bring forth, not a statue that cannot speak, but a man who will think some great

thought or make some great invention, or paint some wonderful picture which will be more to our city than all of the wealth of all of our millionaires.

The Boys' Farm with the buildings and equipment cost the city two hundred thousand dollars in bonds and some of our people have complained of the expense. We have just finished a five-million-dollar courthouse. It is very magnificent and we are all proud of it, but I cannot help thinking as I walk through the marble halls that if we had had the five million dollars for parks and playgrounds for the children and for boys' homes and girls' homes to give them opportunities for right living, possibly then the two hundred thousand dollars would have been sufficient for the courthouse.

To be for years face to face with the poverty, wretchedness and misery of a great city would be unbearable were it not for the vision of what might be under just social and industrial conditions. Only one-tenth of our resources are developed. We could support a thousand million people instead of a hundred million. With the aid of machinery, we are producing fifty times as much as our ancestors did a hundred years ago.

To say that most of our people are living in comfort is not enough. There were nine pieces of silver safe, and only one was lost. There were ninety-nine sheep warm and comfortable in the fold and only one out on the mountain desolate and cold. The good shepherd could not be satisfied.

On the one hand we have the poverty and misery of the unprivileged, on the other hand we have the fabulous luxury of the privileged class. Wealth does not come out of the sky. It is labor applied to the earth. If someone receives a great income which he does not earn, someone earns it and does not get it. We cannot have some people living in the greatest luxury without working unless we have some other men, women and children working in great misery without half living. It is not because of envy of the rich, but because of the growing social feeling, that the heavy burdens of the unprivileged must be lifted. A professor of Johns Hopkins University has recently declared that the time would come in this country when the people would

look upon abject poverty as we now look upon the institution of slavery.

The heart of the church and of society is more and more directing its services to the men and women farthest down, the poorest and weakest and most wretched. This ministration "to the least of the human family who is in want or sick or in prison," the Great Teacher has made the final and supreme test of religion. He has placed it far above dogma, or form or ceremony. It is not merely a beautiful sentiment. It is the fundamental principle of His teaching. It is the only permanent method of the growth of human society. Jesus was a profound social teacher.

Other nations have developed culture, art and education on the part of a few favored ones. Their civilization has always declined. If we make permanent progress, we must lift society from the bottom, and then we all rise together, not to decline and fall. This movement is beginning to make itself felt in our religious, social and political activities. We are coming to realize that the conservation of human life is the highest functions of religion and education, of society and of government itself.

The Boys.

ADDRESS BY F. H. TRACY, SHERIFF, WASHINGTON COUNTY,
MONTPELIER, VERMONT.

I did not know that our good friend Easton had secured Mr. Cooley to speak before this audience to-night. Had I known this I should have hesitated before making the attempt. He has covered the ground, and has taken almost all I had thought to say away from me.

I am not a public speaker; had one said to me five years ago that I should ever make the attempt I should have felt that they were very much in error. My only idea in coming here to-night is not to make a reputation as a public speaker, but to try to tell you something about the boys we have had in our care and some of the results. I am not here to speak of the men steeped

in crime, but of the boys who have come to the parting of the ways; men who, when they came to the meeting of the roads, did not know which way to turn, and took the wrong road; of those boys who never knew what the word home meant; of those men who never knew what the word mother meant, and for that reason have fallen.

For fifteen years I have had the privilege of being jailor of a small county jail carrying from thirty to sixty prisoners, and allow me to say that the county jail is one of the institutions that have been open to criticism even more than penitentiaries, and this is not strange. The superintendent of a penal institution is paid a salary and is supposed to devote his entire time to the care of the inmates, while the pay of a jailor is hardly sufficient to provide proper food for his inmates.

But in the larger institutions better and more modern methods are being used. A few years ago there was the lock-step; speak to a prisoner and his eyes were fastened to the floor; he could not speak unless spoken to; very seldom could he write to his family or friends, who certainly were not to blame for his misfortune. In our State Prison all has been changed; ask to talk with a prisoner and he looks you in the eye; the striped suit has been thrown in the ragbag, and there has come that feeling of confidence between officers and men that brings out better motives and endeavors. Formerly at the House of Correction conditions were even worse than at the State Prison; very often the lad whose only offense was a second intoxication, or perhaps a breach of the peace, was handcuffed to a man with a record, transported perhaps across the State in this manner, compelled to work and associate with him during his term of sentence, and then perhaps be cast adrift in his company to make his way home to friends, penniless.

The story is told of a stranger who visited a cemetery in Ohio. He came to a tombstone on which was this inscription: "Here lies and a lawyer and an honest man." He walked around the stone, looking puzzled, when the sexton approaching asked him the question, "Have you found an old friend?" and he

said, "No, I was wondering why you buried both of those fellows in the same grave."

In this work we sometimes let opportunities pass that never come a second time. It reminds me of the lad who took his girl to ride for the first time. He was bashful and did very little talking. Finally she began to cry, and asked the reason she replied, "Nobody loves me, and my hands are cold." After a pause, he said, "That can't be so, God loves you, so does your mother, and if your hands are cold sit on them"—a lost opportunity.

The first seven years of my life as jailor was under Vermont's old law, the men spending their time in idleness, leaving their terms of imprisonment weak mentally and physically, sometimes being discharged in mid-winter, penniless, with no alternative but to beg, steal or get drunk.

The Legislature of 1906 passed our present Prison Labor law, which reads as follows:

Section 1. A male prisoner imprisoned in a county jail for being intoxicated; for a breach of the peace, or for being a tramp may be required to perform not more than ten hours work within or without the walls of said county jail each day, except on Sundays or legal holidays.

Section 2. The labor to be performed shall be classified and fixed from time to time by the prison board hereinafter created in and for each county, and to be constituted as hereinafter provided, and shall be subject to such rules and regulations as are adopted by said board to secure humane treatment of said prisoners, and provide employment within or without the walls of said county jail.

Section 3. The assistant judges of the county court, the sheriff and the county supervisor of highways shall compose said prison board.

Section 4. Said board, within its respective counties and subject to the rules and regulations to be established under the provisions of section two of this act, and under such control and management as shall be therein and thereafter provided, shall

have authority to require and compel said prisoners to work on the public highways within their respective counties.

Section 5. Said board is hereby authorized to expend such sum out of the public money in the treasury of its county as is required for the purchase of material and tools adapted to the work hereinafter provided.

Section 6. Said board shall have authority to employ such deputies or other officers as shall be required for the supervision, safe keeping and good conduct of said prisoners while employed within or without the walls of said county jail, and the compensation of such officers or deputies shall be fixed by said board, not to exceed two dollars per day for said services.

Section 7. If a prisoner, while employed as aforesaid without the walls of a county jail, makes his escape, such prisoner shall be deemed guilty of committing a prison breach, and shall be subject to like penalties as are now provided by law for prison breach.

Section 8. Imprisonments for a breach of the peace for a period of not exceeding three months, and all imprisonments for being found intoxicated or for being a tramp shall be in the county jail where the offense was committed, the proceeds of such labor, if any, shall be applied in payment of materials and tools furnished as aforesaid, and the balance, if any, shall be turned over to the State Treasurer.

This law took effect January 1st, 1907. The Legislature of 1908 passed the following law :

"Whenever a person is convicted of a crime, not a felony, which may be punished by imprisonment, the sentence imposed, if the minimum term of imprisonment shall not exceed one year, shall be that the respondent be confined at hard labor for the term of the sentence in the jail of the county where the offense was committed."

We started trying the prison labor law in midwinter, but in Vermont there is little work to be had at this season. The men were first employed cutting bushes or underbrush in a piece of woods owned by the State Treasurer and myself. The men did

as little work as possible and in the worst possible manner, and, although we paid the State but fifty cents per day, we got the worst of the bargain.

They worked until nearly spring. Early in May the superintendent of streets of the city came one day to hire some of the men to assist laying a water main through the streets of the city. The first morning we sent nine, three did a small day's work, three about one-half and the other three as little as possible. This was Thursday. I asked him to try them another day. Results were even worse; Saturday the same. When the men had eaten their supper, I called one of them to the office and asked him the reason, and this is the story of George Palmer, who lived in Massachusetts:

He was on his way north in search of work when arrested. He told me he could get the money to pay his fine should he write or communicate with his people, but he would rather serve his sentence than let them know. He asked me if I would not do the same. Being asked if he had any money at all, he said, "No." Then I asked him if he should receive one dollar per day while working, what would he do; his reply was, "Try me." No man did better work than this one the following Monday. On Tuesday every man was working on the honor plan, and from that time on it has been a success. About this time we had a man by the name of Peter Coyle, who served a sentence of twenty days under the old plan. He came back and served a second term, and worked for us on the farm. I believe the length of the second sentence was sixty days, and he earned for himself about forty dollars.

When his time expired he came to the jail office dressed in a neat cheap suit of clothes, and said, showing me a ticket for a little town beyond Montreal, "I haven't seen father or mother for fifteen years; I haven't had the money to go home; I am going back and try to do the right thing and be a man."

This same year we had a man brought in for stealing chickens, who told the deputy jailor that when he came again it would be for a real crime. I had very little to do with this man, but the deputy talked hours with him. To-day he is one of the leading

business men of our city. He never said anything to me about it until last spring, when he carried me out into the country. Coming home he put his hand in mine and said, "But for your jail I would be to-day in the State Prison." This same summer we had a young man by the name of Joe Gudici, who was arrested for larceny in the neighboring city of Barre, and who broke out of the lockup and went to Massachusetts, where he was found six months later and sentenced for one year. The police officers warned me not to trust him, for they said I would lose him. We watched him carefully for three months, and then I asked him if he wanted to work. He worked faithfully for six months, the last three of which he was the trusty in the jail office, locking and unlocking the boys, and sat at my left hand at the table. Coming into the office of the jail one day I heard him in conversation with the former sheriff of the county, who said to him, "Joe, you broke out of the lockup, why don't you run away from here?" His answer, "I am trusted; I can't go back on them."

A year ago last winter I was called to the railroad station to arrest a man for intoxication. Before we landed our man both myself and deputy realized we had been in a mixup. The next morning I took him to the police court, and on the way back he told me his story. He had been a railroad brakeman, who had worked on several roads in the West, and had just returned to Vermont. He asked me to go with him to the railroad station, where he could see some of the boys and they would pay his fine. I thought I saw some manhood in his face, and said, "I will trust you to go down." The next morning the money came.

The next winter he was brought in a second time. When he returned to the jail he asked me the same question, and I allowed him to go. Weeks rolled by and no money came. Finally I located him in St. Albans jail. I wrote him a letter, saying that I should not go after him, but would let him think it over. The 29th day of May, two days before I was to make up my quarterly account and include in it the payment of his fine, at eleven o'clock at night, the bell at the jail door rang, and upon going there I found Robert Farley at the door, who said, "I have come back

to serve my sentence; I couldn't allow you to pay the fine." He said, "I want to work awhile with you." I sent him out shoveling soft coal, and when his term expired he had earned twenty dollars for the State and as much for himself. These are only a few of the instances where men have made good. I could stand here for hours and tell of men who have kept their word of honor with us. I think I can safely say that we have had 1,800 men working on their word of honor during the last seven years. Of this number only three have attempted to escape.

All this time we have had a prisoner as trusty, locking and unlocking the jail doors. Four years ago a circus visited our city. The men were working during the day, but when evening came I asked how many of them wanted to go to the show, and eighteen asked for the privilege. Fifteen minutes after the show closed every man was back in jail. My first experience in trusting them was six years ago, when Vermont had the Northern League playing baseball during the summer months. We had, as near as I can remember, twenty-four men. One Saturday noon I asked how many would like to go that afternoon. When all of them came into the jail office and waited for me to accompany them, I told them to go alone. Although the ball park was three miles away, every man was back within thirty minutes after the game closed.

We have a little pledge we ask the men to sign, and I have over one thousand of them that have never been broken. It reads like this:

MONTPELIER, Vt.,

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I hereby freely and voluntarily promise and agree that, while I am a prisoner confined in the Washington County Jail, or employed as a prisoner outside the walls, I will abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors of every kind and character; that I will not play cards for money or for any article of value; that I will break none of the laws of the State; that I will not violate any of the rules of the jail, and that I will at all times conduct myself as a gentleman.

One other card we have used with success:

MY FRIEND—For a little while you and I are compelled to live under the same roof, and, in a way, to be in each others company. You came without an invitation from me. Probably you had no intention we should meet in this

way. During your stay your treatment will largely depend on your behavior. Probably you have made a mistake, perhaps done wrong; I have done both—most all have. Let we both, the little while we are together, try and do as we would be done by. Should we both do this, I am sure we can part with respect for each other. My earnest wish is that I may be a better man for having known you and that you may be none the worse for having met me.

We haven't made the money that Brother Cooley has—ours is a small institution—but, as he says, this is a very small consideration. But we have tried to make some men better, and have had wonderful success. The little we have done has been more than duplicated in other parts of the country. Warden Gilmour tells about going out on his farm one day and seeing the men coming from all parts of it to dinner. He asks himself this question, "How is it these are the same men who five years ago I had behind bars and bolts, and here they are as free as air?"

He tells of the minister who asked him what percentage of his men made good, and when he said ninety-five per cent. the parson said, "What a pity." The warden answered, "Yes, it is a pity, but can you say that that percentage of your church members make good?" He made no answer. He tells of the young lawyer who took his wife into court, and when the judge came in she said, "What an awful looking man the prisoner is." He said, "Sh—that's the judge; the prisoner hasn't come in yet."

I love to think, in connection with this work, of that beautiful poem, the words of which I would rather have said of me than to have all the wealth of J. P. Morgan [reciting] "Abou Ben Adhem, may his tribe increase."

They tell the story of the judge who came into court one morning, and meeting his court officer, who said, "Judge, an old bum returned to town last night." The judge asked what was his condition. The officer said, "The same as ever, drunk." The judge said, "The first time he is so again bring him in and we will soak him." The officer replied, "Judge, this is your brother." The judge said, "That's different."

The story is told of a judge of the police court in San Francisco with the usual bunch of drunks and disorderlies before him. He had sentenced the first one when, from the tombs below, some one commenced to sing the "Holy City": "Last night as I lay asleeping, there came a dream so fair."

The judge made an inquiry and found that a noted tenor singer, a member of an opera company, arrested for forgery, was singing in his cell.

The song went on, "I stood in old Jerusalem beside a temple fair."

A boy at the end of the line buried his face in his sleeve and sobbed the word "mother," the sobs breaking the silence of the room. A man, showing the signs of a drunken night, with a broken voice said, "Judge, we are here to take our sentence, but this is too much."

The song went on until finally, "Jerusalem, Jerusalem, sing for the night is o'er." Then there was silence.

No one was sentenced in that court that morning. A kindly word of advice, with a clasp of the hand, was all. The song had done its work.

To-day, in the prisons and jails of this country, are thousands of men and boys serving time. Some who never had a home, some who never heard a mother's voice or heard a mother's prayer.

Responsibility greater than that comes to the average man. It has come to you and to me; it comes in a measure to every one. Some time one may say, "I was in prison and ye visited me not," and what will be the answer? I want to try and tell you why I have made the attempt to speak to you to-night. It was because I had a good mother. If it had not been for that, I would never have dared to try. Up near the bank of the White River, in a little country churchyard, is my mother's grave. I had her care through my boyhood days, her counsel and help until middle age. Sometimes in my wild days, when some would say I was going to hell, she stood by and encouraged me. In the village where we lived was the county jail, and many times when a man or boy was sentenced to State Prison she would go and talk with him and ask him to write her during his term of sentence. I have a little package of letters written by some of those boys. The last eighteen months of her life were months of agony, and yet no complaint. The morning she went away she called me to her room, and the last words she spoke on

earth she spoke to me, and said, "If the time ever comes when you can do what your mother would have done for these boys, I ask you to do it." She turned to the wall and died.

That is why I have dared to try to speak to you to-night. I would not have tried but for that. If anything has been done in the little jail in Montpelier for these boys, the credit is due that mother. I thank you.

Discussion.

MR. STONAKER—I do not like very much to get away from the spirit of this meeting, but I would like to ask a simple practical question of Mr. Tracy on this earning question. You speak of their earning in jail the money. Where does it come from and what do the men do to get the money? Do the men go out into the places and get the job or do you find the job, and who pays them?

MR. TRACY—In answer to that question I would say that the jail has become an employment bureau. We don't have to search for the work, the work searches for us. There is not a day after springtime opens—and we can only work about six months in the year, as we have the cold mountain winter—from now until the first day of December many requests come in for help. Every night heads of corporations, families, who want to employ men, send into our jail and ask them to send one, two, three or five men in the morning. Half of the wages go to the men themselves and the balance to the State. The best citizens of Montpelier have telephoned for men to come clean their cellars, and do all kinds of work, and they prefer them to any help they can hire on the street, and they have never lost a pin.

MR. STONAKER—I want to get that detail. He goes out and works. The money is paid by the people employing him? To whom does that money go? Is it turned over to the man?

MR. TRACY—He brings it to me. Many and many a time they come in with their week's wages, bringing me their part. Yesterday morning, Sunday, if I had been there, a half dozen

men would have come to me and said, "I can go home and spend my last week's wages with my family," and they go and come back.

THE PRESIDENT—Someone wants to know what nationalities are represented.

MR. TRACY—All nationalities. There are a few Italians. There are a few negroes.

A DELEGATE—Are there any more sheriffs in Montpelier looking for jobs?

MR. TRACY—The woods are full of them. I will say this much, they are beginning to do it in the other counties, and this is just the beginning of what we are going to do. I do want to say this: We are not going to run employment bureaus; we are going to have what Mr. Cooley has told you about, a farm colony, where these men may work in the open.

THE CHAIRMAN—In your county jail do you have the men for more than six months at a time?

MR. TRACY—A year.

THE CHAIRMAN—This morning we were told that from forty to sixty per cent. of our men in the jails are feeble-minded and should require custodial care. I wondered if you found those conditions true in your institution, and, if so, what you did about it.

MR. COOLEY—I can answer for my part. We have known for a long time that a number of our men were arrested for crimes, so we have a special commission, composed of men who study the physical side, and so we are going to try and determine how many are feeble-minded. Quite a large percentage, I know, of our men who are more than forty years old are not more than eight years old mentally. Of course, these ought to be taken care of permanently. When they are taking custodial care they ought to be taken care of, not with any spirit of punishment, but simply because they need it. I think the best thing to do in the local jail is to take out the men who are mentally deficient.

MR. COOLEY—Don't you find there are some who are rather simple-minded, easily led?

THE CHAIRMAN—I would like to ask whether it is a question of the man or the law, and whether an ordinary average citizen can get such results. It seems to me each time we hear of these remarkable things we find it is a remarkable man that has done it.

MR. TRACY—I think I can answer that better, because I rarely have a man that takes care of prisoners under me. The real facts are brought out by something I think Doctor Leonard spoke to you about last year. A warden went to Leonard and said, "How do you manage those men? You know I let some of the rascals out, but they all ran away from me." Leonard couldn't explain just why it was. Of course, they would run away from him. It's the personality of the man. But anyone that has the right spirit will win out.

REV. S. A. WEIKERT (Rector St. Mark's Church, Paterson)—I would like to ask Mr. Cooley a question in reference to the colony plan. We are very much interested in that at the present time in Passaic county, from which I come, and the city of Paterson is in that county. I had a conference with the president of the board of freeholders the other day; they have that question before them at the present time and they are in a quandary as to whether it would be a better plan to purchase one large tract of land and have three or four institutions on that one tract, separately from each other, or buy four farms of a certain number of acres, one removed far from the other, and have the almshouse on one land, on one the house of detention, on the other a hospital. Which would you recommend, based upon your own personal experience, so I might take a message back to the president of the board of freeholders?

MR. COOLEY—I would very decidedly recommend the large tracts of land, for a number of reasons which we found in our experience, and which we have found out in actual experience in addition to the others. The large tract of land gives you the opportunity of controlling a great environment. There is a great difference between a colony farm and a colony in the country.

When you speak of New York city, some people think about New York city and not a little farm outside. When you have a large tract of land you control a great environment, which is desirable when there are all kinds of abnormal natures to be dealt with. It is exceedingly important to have a large amount of land broken for our old men and for the tubercular patients. We probably have about four hundred old men who can do a little work, and are better off when they are doing it. We have two hundred patients who ought to do some work. If you have a large number of men that need work, you must have heavy work as the basis for that. If you have gardens, you have the digging. We can bring one hundred men, strong fellows, if necessary, from our colony farm and put them together. I saw the other day fifty workhouse men in one field. The tuberculous patients can't work laboriously, but they can hoe and plow in the garden, and thus supplement the work of the prison colony. I know the objection will be raised at once of putting these institutions on one farm, but the workhouse group is a mile and a half away from the other groups. Some of our friends have objected to that. When an English friend was visiting here, I took him to our workhouse, and I walked him from the workhouse group up to the colony. When we got up to the colony group, he said, "If anybody says these institutions are too near together, just refer him to me." We have found no trouble at all. There was fear of it, but we have tried to keep a good distance between the groups. I think it is extremely valuable to have a great tract of land. We have one lighting system for the whole farm, and that is a great saving. We put the girls' home in connection with it also. In the city no one thinks anything of it. When you speak of a farm, one thinks of a hundred or fifty acres, but a farm that is two miles long, one and a half wide, gives plenty of room for the location of a colony.

THE CHAIRMAN—A jail with only an average of fifty or sixty inmates, would you take up tracts of land of that size?

MR. COOLEY—No; but I should think it could be a mile or so, I don't know of any institution making the mistake of getting too much land. I know a great many have made the other mis-

take. We have purchased it all, probably, within ten years. It cost the city \$300,000. We were offered a million dollars for it by a real estate syndicate last year. When you are building your institution a good thing is to get all the land you are going to want. Your transportation, lighting and water system are very important items and are tremendous economies in having one plant. It would be better if one or more counties would join together and get a large tract.

THE PRESIDENT—I would like to express, on behalf of the Conference, the appreciation that we have for the work which you gentlemen both are doing, and more than that, the spirit in which you are doing it. (Applause.)

As I look over the situation which we are facing to-day, I am coming more and more to the conclusion that it is just such a spirit as these men have manifested as coming out of their work that is going to do the tremendous things that are to be done in the State. You gentlemen have added to that spirit to-night more than you can appreciate, and we thank you both.

Tuesday Morning, April 21st, 1914.

(Section Meetings 9:30 to 11; General Session 11 to 12:30.)

Topic: "Settlements, Interpreters of Democracy."

MISS CORNELIA F. BRADFORD, HEADWORKER, WHITTIER HOUSE,
JERSEY CITY, CHAIRMAN.

It is with no overvaluation of settlement life and work that I make the assertion this morning that I think it is good for us all, and for New Jersey at large, to have settlement workers represented at this Conference. It is the first time we have been so considered, and though I have spoken many times at these annual conferences, yet it has invariably been on subjects closely allied to social reform work, and so, naturally, to settlement work, but not distinctively on settlements as such.

In Plainfield last year, immediately after the selection of Dr. Hunt to the presidency of the Conference for this year, I appealed to him in behalf of our New Jersey settlements and asked him if we might have a section at the coming Conference. He very kindly responded; he thought it would be a good idea, and later told me the reason we had not before been asked was because we so repeatedly emphasize the thought that we are not charitable institutions. However, this morning has been set apart for us, and in retaliation, perhaps, I have been asked to take the chairmanship of the meeting.

Emerson, you remember, says, "The President pays dearly for the White House," and I have long since found this to be equally true of the Headworker of Whittier House, because Whittier House is the pioneer settlement of New Jersey. However, I have to thank the president of this Conference, and the committee, for giving me the pleasure of introducing to you this morning prominent speakers from equally prominent New York settlements, and also for the pleasure I have in introducing to you our own New Jersey settlements.

To this day settlements seem greatly misunderstood. To be

sure, as an idea, or a movement, we are not very old, being not yet thirty years of age, but the animating idea of settlements was, and is, a belief in the unity of humanity, a belief that if civilization civilizes, then this civilizing and uplifting power is intended for all. Settlements, in a vague way, define themselves. There was and is no thought to build up an institution, but rather to live a life in a neighborhood, to make this life one of goodwill toward all in the neighborhood. The spirit of democracy is the spirit which started the first settlement nearly thirty years ago in East London. This spirit of democracy animated the students of Oxford and Cambridge who left their universities, carrying with them their university ideas and life to the people of congested East London. These students knew well that the good which would be received would be reactionary, that in carrying education, civilization, life and light into the congested quarters of that great city, they, too, would receive larger ideas of life, greater knowledge of humanity, would be getting closer to the life of Christ. They knew that in East London they would find other agencies working for good, and that it was for them to co-operate with these agencies. Their spirit was to establish no cult, but rather in the simplest and most natural way possible, to make brother understand brother. Every neighborhood has in it those who have seen better days. The curse of the poor man is his poverty. Because of sickness, lack of work, loss of money, these people are to be found in every neighborhood. Distasteful surroundings, economic pressure, keep them in a perpetual state of suffering from the hunger of the soul. This soul hunger is almost as excruciating as stomach hunger. Longing for higher things, for books, for music, for recreation and for pleasure, and for leisure in which to acquire them, is, of itself, suffering, and is best met by the "law of recognition." University men and women, after finishing their course, long for the best opportunity of disseminating this knowledge, and, for their own souls' sake, giving to others that which they have themselves received.

The settlement house is the meeting place of the educated and the uneducated, the rich and the poor, of all nationalities and of

many creeds. Co-operative assimilation, as it were, is in the atmosphere, and the result is generally enlarged and spiritualized vision and life. This spirit of co-operation extends also out of the neighborhood into the city and into the State, thus making the settlement a co-operating factor in municipal and civic life.

There are twelve settlements in New Jersey. The oldest of them is Whittier House, Jersey City, now twenty years old. It is not an easy thing to carry on philanthropic, humanitarian and democratic work in this little State of ours. New Jersey is not interested in New Jersey. Situated as it is between two large States, having at its northern and at its southern extremities two of the largest cities, into which the population of New Jersey pours itself every morning, returning late at night, only to close its eyes in forgetful sleep, it is but little wonder that New Jersey suffers from lack of thoughtful planning. But in spite of all this, our twelve settlements have grown animated by the spirit of love for brother man. Several years ago, by uniting, they established the New Jersey Neighborhood Workers' Association, which brings the workers into close relationship, these few but not large settlements.

Jersey City, with about three hundred thousand inhabitants, has but one settlement. It should have six times as many or more. There is the Italian quarter, the Polish quarter, and many other quarters of the city where settlements are absolutely needed. It is impossible for one settlement to meet the social, economic and neighborly demands of all parts of the city. From the first, Whittier House has been necessarily constructive in its character. It has established kindergartens, district nursing, legal aid, playgrounds and many other activities, and as soon as it was possible has turned these over to the Board of Education, the Shade Tree Commission and other city authorities. It is now carrying on the only babies' milk dispensary and children's dental dispensaries there are in the city. The amount of work done in them proves that both of them belong to the city and should be carried on by it. As a Child Welfare Department is now being established by the city authorities, the hope of Whittier House is that these two dispensaries will soon be established

in the public schools. Last summer Whittier House had, for the first time, its summer camp. This is nothing new to the New York settlements, but it is the first of the kind to be established in New Jersey—that is, belonging to a New Jersey organization. It is not unusual for New York settlements and other organizations to have their vacation houses in New Jersey, but it is an unusual thing for a New Jersey organization to have its summer outing place. The hope of Whittier House is that this Pomona Camp may in time become a New Jersey camp, to be used by other organizations through the State.

It has co-operated with churches, with educational, charitable and labor organizations, and, indeed, with all organizations for the improvement of social conditions. For years it was the only social center in lower Jersey City. Now the public schools are being converted into social centers, and Whittier House is co-operating with them. It was with pride it helped to launch forth the New Jersey Neighborhood Workers' Association. From the first it has taken an active interest in the Neighborhood House in Orange Valley, established in 1897.

This is situated in the manufacturing district of the Oranges, in the midst of large hat and box factories, around which are gathered dense populations of working people. Notwithstanding it is situated in a rural community, it has to solve the problem of a mixed population, such as American, Irish, Poles, Germans and Italians. It maintains a public library, co-operates with the public schools, has the usual industrial classes of all settlements, but adds to it Italian lace-making, has a fine dramatic club, gymnasium, etc. Its head worker, Miss Adelaide Crommelein, has been there for several years.

The third settlement is also situated in Orange, and defines itself as the "Visiting Nurses' Settlement." This is an outgrowth of the Orange Training School for Nurses, and maintains a three-months' course in visiting nursing, has a milk dispensary, a first-aid room, and carries on free public lectures in nursing and medicine.

The Neighborhood House, of North Summit, was the fourth of these New Jersey settlements, and was established in 1901.

The work, while undenominational, is carried on by the Presbyterian Church of Summit. It is situated in the silk mill district, and the majority of the population are Syrians, Armenians, Polish Jews, Italians, Irish, Americans, Bohemians, Russians, English and Turks. In a neighborhood made up of such diverse elements, it aims "to provide a unifying interest which shall give to every child at least training for head, hand and spirit." It carries on a Sunday-school, has classes for immigrants, sewing school, music and athletics. Miss Louise M. Lyon is its head worker.

In 1905 the Newark Neighborhood House, of 555 Market street, Newark, was established in the iron-bound district, which is the heart of a great factory district in Newark. Surrounding it are the homes of an Italian and Slavic colony. In this colony are Poles, Lithuanians, Hungarians and other Slavic people. The keepers of the shops in the immediate vicinity are largely Jews and Germans. About are multitudes of tenements of the worst type, veritable cesspools of disease, into which are crowded the newly-arrived unskilled laborers. There are scores also of small, neat houses, owned by skilled laborers, and a few houses of well-to-do families. Besides the usual industrial and social clubs of all settlements, it maintains a dental clinic and a milk station. Miss Clara P. Curtiss is its present head worker.

In 1907 the Jewish Sisterhood House was established in Newark. "The crying need for social activity led to the beginning of this settlement." It is situated in the heart of a Jewish district. The people are Russians, Hungarians and Slavs. It maintains a day nursery, library, visiting nurse, has a special work for immigrant girls, has classes in cooking and home keeping and does an extensive work in the homes with the mothers. Miss Josephine Miller has been head worker for two years.

Miss Louise Watts established, in 1908, the Sophia Ricord Neighborhood House, also in Newark. This aims to improve the social, mental and physical condition of the neighborhood. It has gymnastic classes, manual training, and in a most unique way serves the immediate neighborhood. It is a quiet, unpretentious work, but must be of great value to its neighbors.

Bound Brook, New Brunswick, Morristown, Madison, Elizabeth and Montclair all have settlement work. Bound Brook, Madison and Morristown have settlement houses, and some of the settlements are carrying on extensive work in rural neighborhoods. In Morristown and Madison the neighborhoods are Italian, so, also, in Montclair, and in the other cities the population is more or less mixed.

The New Jersey Neighborhood Workers' Association has this winter been active in legislative work. The meetings are held once a month at the various settlements which compose the association, and its aim, like the settlements, is to work along democratic lines, feeling certain that if democracy, like the kingdom of heaven, is "within us," the only way in which it can be made a reality is, as we, ourselves, help to bring it about.

While in the whole State of New Jersey there are about twelve settlements, New York City alone has sixty or more. Toynbee Hall, in East London, is the oldest of all settlements. University Settlement, New York, is the oldest in the United States. The next oldest is the College Settlement, 95 Rivington street, New York, and the next Hull House, Chicago.

Miss Lillian D. Wald, of the Henry Street Settlement, is the head worker and was founder of this settlement, which has celebrated its twentieth anniversary. This settlement, formerly known as the Nurses' Settlement, is one of the most influential in the city, and Miss Wald herself is considered an authority on all questions pertaining to all municipal, State, social and economic affairs. From the beginning, Miss Wald has been actively and earnestly interested in the welfare of the stranger within our gates, and is considered an authority on questions pertaining to the immigrant.

Dr. Moskowitz is head worker of the Madison House, of the Down Town Ethical Society, and one whom Mayor Mitchell has honored by placing in municipal office. "This society was established in December, 1898, by a group of twelve young men, with the moral and financial assistance of the Society of Ethical Culture. Two primary purposes have actuated the society in its work. One is thorough Americanization of the residents of the lower East Side, and especially of the younger generation. The other

is the strengthening of the home ties between immigrant parents and American-bred children, and the ennobling of the family life, by reconciling the differences due to change in social and economic environment. It, the society, stands for the supremacy of the moral life, and tries to emphasize the moral aspects of the complex problems with which the East Side is grappling." Dr. Moskowitz is an ardent believer in democracy. He thinks that the bringing about of democracy can be made permanent, only as the neighborhood depends upon the neighborhood, that complete democracy means complete responsibility, and that reforms in neighborhoods can be effected only as a neighborhood depends largely upon itself in assuming financial responsibility.

The Rev. Mr. White, head worker of the Union Settlement, will speak on "Settlements as a Religious Force in a Community." Mr. White was for many years president of the New York Neighborhood Workers' Association, and is one who believes that religion is best exemplified, not necessarily in preaching and in meetings, but by living. His settlement aims to maintain a settlement in New York City for the assertion and application in the spirit of Jesus Christ, of the principles of brotherhood, along the lines of educational, social, civic and religious well-being. It is active in district improvement, in public co-operation in public schools, and indeed with everything which enters into the general uplift of the settlement.

THE CHAIRMAN—I feel very delighted to think I can introduce to you the Rev. Gaylord S. White, Head Worker, Union Settlement, New York.

The Social Settlement as a Religious Force in the Community.

ADDRESS BY GAYLORD S. WHITE, HEAD WORKER, UNION SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK CITY.

Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I know how sorry you are that Miss Wald and Doctor Moskowitz have failed you on this programme, and I know much better than most of you what these settlement workers would have said to you. I am sorry

myself, because I felt what they would say would be an introduction to what I am to speak on. I don't think we could have had a better introduction than this survey of settlement work which Miss Bradford has given us in such an interesting and efficient manner, because Miss Bradford was in the work in its early days, and I am going to say in her presence I am proud of the work Miss Bradford has done. I think we in New York consider that Jersey City presents a great many questions and is a most difficult field. The topic I am to speak on this morning is "Settlements as a Religious Force in a Community."

Some years ago the rector of a prominent church in New York, and a man of social vision, defined the so-called "institutional church" as the "settlement *plus* religion." It was a reflection of a popular sentiment respecting the settlement. In the mind of this clergyman, and in the minds of many other persons at the time, there was the feeling that the institutional church was an important step in advance in the work of social progress. Here was an organization that could do all that the settlement was trying to do, and at the same time supply the one thing needful that the work of the social settlement lacked. That there has been a general impression abroad that the settlement was devoid of religious significance and influence cannot be denied. There were indeed many people who regarded the settlement as not only lacking a religious influence, but as having an influence even antagonistic to religion.

It is my purpose to show that instead of being without religious significance, and, still more, instead of being anti-religious, the settlement is a force that makes for the furtherance of religion by tending to establish and enhance the essentially religious values in practical life.

We can readily enough understand how this idea—that the settlement was an irreligious or an anti-religious institution—gained such general currency. Although in England the settlement developed, in a sense, from the "college mission," a religious undertaking conducted in London by university students, in this country the work was begun in most cases by those who, to say the least, were not identified with the evangelical churches.

Indeed, the work was commenced with a careful avoidance of everything that might savor, even remotely, of religious propaganda or religious influence of any kind. The effort of the leaders was to unite all the people of the neighborhood, without regard to race or creed or social condition, and in order to accomplish this it appeared to them necessary to omit any line of work that could in any manner tend to alienate any group represented in the life of the neighborhood. The *basis* of organization was thus *frankly humanitarian*. It was a new departure in philanthropy. Hitherto most of the charitable effort was carried on by "church people," and often under the direct auspices of the churches. Religion was recognized and frequently emphasized. But here was a movement for social betterment which purposely left to one side all connection with organized religion, and even appeared to go out of its way to avoid the possibility of being thought to have religious significance. This, of course, was in itself enough to arouse suspicion against the settlement on the part of the church. But there were further grounds of complaint. It was soon apparent that the settlements were absorbing many of the more thoughtful young people who had been brought up within the churches. Not a few college men and women, coming to take up the active work of life, and finding little sympathy in the church for their intellectual and social convictions, turned with a sense of relief and satisfaction to the opportunity which the settlement offered of practical work in simple, genuine, human ways. This fact did not pass unobserved by the churches, and, in addition they could not but recognize that the settlements were achieving results in the very districts in which they were compelled to admit utter failure. And so friction and misunderstanding resulted and the settlement and the church went each its own way, the church looking with disfavor on the settlement, and the settlement largely ignoring the church.

Within recent years a marked change has come about. Much of this old feeling has passed away. A more sympathetic attitude has taken its place on both sides. And yet, the feeling that the settlement is an irreligious institution still lingers in the minds

of so many people identified with the churches that it appears worth while to point out in what respects the settlement of to-day may fairly be regarded as a force making for religion in our common life.

In approaching a subject about which misunderstandings exist, it is always a good plan to begin with a definition. Let us then make clear, if we can, just what we mean when we speak of *the settlement*, and just what we mean also when we use the word *religion*.

There is need of getting a distinct idea of the *essential purpose* of the settlement. We must clear the air of certain misconceptions. It is somewhat surprising to find how general, even at this late day, is the confusion of mind regarding the method and aim of the settlement. There are, for example, those who confound it with the "mission." They think of the settlement as if it were some new form of religious propagandism. Others regard it as some fresh departure in organized charity. Still others conceive of it as chiefly concerned with educational effort. Now such misunderstanding is after all not so much to be wondered at. Just because the settlement sought to touch life on every side it laid itself open to misunderstanding on the part of the casual observer. And most people moreover are slow to grasp a new idea. They can think of it only in terms of something they already understand and in association with some institution to which the new idea appears in some way related. And those who confounded the social settlement with enterprises of education or undertakings of religion or organized charity were not altogether at fault. For the settlement has been brought of necessity into intimate relations with these and other phases of work.

If there were time I should like to show in what respects the settlement differs from a "mission" and from an educational institution and from a charity, in the narrower sense of the term. But in this gathering it is scarcely worth while. The more important and the more difficult thing is to show just what it is. The task has been simplified, however, by the fact that the settlement idea has been expressed in catechetical form. In this cate-

chism which Mrs. Simkhovitch has prepared it is clearly brought out that a settlement is primarily a family living in a neglected neighborhood. It is somewhat of an artificial family, being composed of people who have had educational and social advantages and who are brought together by their common neighborhood interests. Their purpose is to understand the problems of wage-earners and to take their full share in the development of the social life of the neighborhood. The method is the method of co-operation. The catechism then goes on to show that the settlement being a family, cannot be a charity or an institution or a mission, etc. Now, the important thing to bear in mind in thinking of the settlement is its *family character*. Think of it in terms of the family, and we shall not go far astray. I recognize that the settlements have often seemed to depart from this family ideal. There is not time now to discuss the question. But it is perhaps sufficient to say that those settlement which have been most useful have preserved to a large degree the family spirit, or the family consciousness. Let us, then, keep this family characteristic of the settlement in mind—the idea of a group living in normal, neighborly relations—while we proceed to try to define what we mean by “religion” or “religious,” when we claim for the settlement a religious influence in the community.

Here, for example, is a definition of religion from a well-known writer: “Religion is man’s belief in a being or beings mightier than himself and inaccessible to his senses, but not indifferent to his sentiments and actions, with the feelings and practices which flow from such belief.” Religion thus has both a Godward and a manward side. It is indeed concerned primarily with the unseen Supreme Being, on whom man feels himself dependent and to whom he realizes that he owes allegiance; it springs from this belief, but it does not end here. It is equally concerned with the practical results which flow from such a conviction. The practical results are quite as much a part of religion as the relationship to a Supreme Being. Old Bishop Latimer had the same thought in mind when he said, “Pure religion standeth not in wearing a monk’s cowl, but in righteousness, justice and well-doing.” And the old Hebrew prophet, Amos, protesting against the ceremonial religion of his day, put the matter

in the splendid words, "But let justice roll down as waters and righteousness as a mighty stream." As another has said, "As the life of man is his relation to God, religion affects all sides of a man's nature, intellectual, emotional and practical." And it is true that, while the idea of religion is not completely fulfilled without the thought or belief in a Supreme Being, the religious attitude toward life may be expressed even by those who have no clearly defined conviction respecting God. I think we may say that those persons have an essentially religious spirit (the spirit which in its outward manifestation characterizes those whom we should commonly consider "religious people" in the strictest acceptance of the term) who exhibit a sense of the dignity and worth of each person, a feeling that man is made for higher and better things than his present life affords, and who are dedicating themselves to the task of bringing in a better order of social life. It is in this sense that we commonly speak of the Socialist movement as a religious movement. And it is just here that we come to realize the possibilities that the social settlement possesses as a religious force.

Let us look now at the matter a little more closely, and ask ourselves in what sense we may regard the settlement as a religious force?

I believe the settlement to be a force making for religion (a) because of the character of the work it carries on, and (b) because of the attitude which it holds toward the neighborhood in which its work is done and toward life in general.

(a) Because of its work. There can be no doubt that the work of the settlement is both physically and morally uplifting. It is a work primarily of neighborhood improvement, but one that frequently reaches out far beyond the bounds of the immediate neighborhood. And work of this character is manifestly **APPLIED RELIGION**, or to use Graham Taylor's phrase, "Religion in social action." It is work that is tending to bring about the kind of social order that religious people have in mind when they speak of the "kingdom of God." The clubs and the classes of the settlement often seem trivial and a waste of time. But they acquire a new dignity, when one realizes that out of just these

trivial little clubs there have developed ideas which have gone into important social movements.

I need only to remind you that the settlements have been an important factor in the development of the movement for playgrounds in the recreation center work of the public schools, in school nursing and home and school visiting, and in many other branches of work which have now become established in our public educational and recreational work. It has constantly been the policy of the settlements to experiment with new proposals in these fields, and when their value has been established they have been turned over in many cases to the appropriate public authorities.

Such things as these indicate the practical character of the influence which the settlements have exerted. And they indicate the religious character of the settlements, for if religion consists in "love to one's neighbor", as well as in love to God, the kind of work the settlements have done and are doing is essentially religious work. How can we better express our love for our neighbor, our regard for his welfare, than by doing what in us lies to see that he gets a fair chance to develop to the highest degree the powers and capacities that he possesses. This means making it possible for him to live in decent surroundings, to earn a fair wage, and to be able to give opportunities to his children for health and education and recreation. And it is this sort of thing that the settlements are interested in trying to accomplish, not all by themselves, but by the democratic method of co-operation. I submit that this is essentially religious work. As Prof. Peabody says, "The social question is another name for practical religion." Is it not the *spirit of brotherhood* expressing itself in social and industrial reform? There are persons who have dedicated themselves to this work with all the ardor and enthusiasm of the devoted missionary, who would resent it if you sought to express admiration for their consecration. Some of them would not even like to be accused of being "religious," but in spite of this the work they are doing as a result of their sense of the injustice of present conditions is truly a religious work.

(b) Because of the settlement's *attitude*.

But the settlement is exerting an influence that is religious, not only because of its work, but also because of the attitude it holds toward its neighborhood and towards life in general. That attitude is best described by the word DEMOCRATIC. By that I mean a genuine belief in men, people, the rank and file of humanity. The true democrat is one who believes in the essential dignity of the individual. It is out of this belief that the conviction that he has a right to the highest development grows. We have treated of the work of the settlement before the attitude; but, logically, the work is the result of the attitude. It is because of the views of life that the settlement worker takes that he seeks to socialize the means of personal development, and to make the conditions of life better—to introduce into human relations more of justice and righteousness and love. And what is this but the aim which all religious men are striving to realize? It is the purpose to give reality to the word BROTHERHOOD, and it is an acceptance (often unacknowledged) of the religious truth which was the keynote of the message of Jesus that life in its true sense is found only by losing it—only by self-sacrifice.

And to return to the thought with which we began, the reproach is often brought against the settlement as a whole that they are not religious. I hope we have seen that such a judgment must betray either a misapprehension about the nature of the settlement or else an extremely narrow view of religion. Must we not rid ourselves of the idea that "Christian work" is one thing, and "humanitarian work" quite another thing? Was not Jesus quite as "religious," fully as much engaged in "Christian work" when he was feeding the hungry or healing the sick as when he was preaching to the multitudes or dealing with Nicodemus or the Samaritan woman at Jacob's well? Both functions are important. One must supplement the other. Service is not all of religion, but it is an important element; and the settlement is a synonym for service.

In this brief discussion of the subject I am compelled to make only passing reference to what is, perhaps, the most important

thing that should be said in this connection. I do not wish to give the impression that the only service the settlement renders is on the physical side. It realizes the need of the closer co-ordination of all the moral and spiritual and social forces of the community. It has had, too, an influence in overcoming social and racial prejudices and in uniting diverse elements which is by no means the least of its service.

Finally, let me quote some pertinent words from Prof. Peabody. In speaking of the similarity which religion and the social question possess as to practical consequences, which suggests a similarity in origin, he remarks, "Shall one say then that this identity of operations indicates that religion is displaced by the new social spirit, or is it more reasonable to conclude that the social question is but a new channel through which flows the unexhausted stream of the religious life? Even though the social movement is not the main highway of the religious life, may it not be the way which lies most immediately before the mind of the present age, and which indicates that step in God's education of the human race which this generation is called by Him to take? There are many paths by which the life of man may reach the life of God; but may one not become so accustomed by tradition and training to one of these paths that he fails to see another way which lies directly before his feet? When the Pharisees were confronted by the teaching of Jesus, they applied to it their preconception of what it should be, rather than their appreciation of what it was, and, in failing to meet their preconceived test, it failed to command their loyalty. It was the same even with certain disciples, when Jesus was discovered not to be what they had fancied He would be. He 'drew near,' it is written, 'and went with them.' But their eyes were holden that they should not know Him. They were so preoccupied in thinking that this should have been He who was to redeem Israel, that they did not recognize the Messiah of the human soul walking by their side. And what self-reproach could be more keen than this—to meet the same spirit of self-effacing service walking, as on the path to Emmaus, along the dusty track of the social question, and to have one's eyes holden, even though one's heart burned within him on the way?"

THE CHAIRMAN—I am quite sure you can all see why we like to have Mr. White with us to represent practically the spiritual side of our work, and now we have about ten minutes. I feel like begging your pardon, and Mr. White's pardon, for taking the time, and I am sure if there are any questions you would like to ask Mr. White would be glad to answer them.

Tuesday Afternoon, April 21st, 1914, 2 P. M.

Topic: "Coast and South Jersey Problems."

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, VINELAND, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—When I was asked to take charge of the meeting concerning itself with South Jersey and Coast Problems, I didn't know exactly what those ought to include, and I think perhaps some of the problems we are meeting in South Jersey relate just as much to North Jersey as South Jersey. One of the most important things is the work of the State Commission, which, for some time, has been finding out what ought to be done with the mental defective, including the insane, epileptic and feeble-minded, and Mr. Read, of Camden, will present to you the work that the State Commission is doing. This Conference, some years ago, appointed a State Committee on that very thing. This commission, appointed by the Governor, has a little more authority than a voluntary committee.

I have the pleasure of introducing to you Mr. Read, whom, I presume, you all know.

Some Results of Research.

ADDRESS BY EDMUND E. READ, JR., SECRETARY STATE COMMITTEE
ON PROVISION FOR MENTAL DEFECTIVES, CAMDEN.

Ladies and Gentlemen: I deem it a great privilege to have the honor of presenting to you a survey of the work we have done. The story of it is very simple. The Governor appointed five of us, in response to a joint resolution of the House and Senate, to investigate the subject of mental defectives of the State of New Jersey, having special relation to studying the problem of what we should do with them, how we should reorganize the method of their care and what we should do looking forward to their cure. This commission was composed of five, all strangers.

practically, to each other. We met without either knowing the others, and we determined from the start that there should be no politics whatever in our work. The work was carried on, therefore, without the slightest political sentiment and at the smallest possible expense. It has always been my experience that when you inject politics into this sort of work you add very materially to the expense. The Legislature appropriated \$2,500 to our work. We did the work as best we could, and I am very happy to say that we will return to the State treasury, after having completed our work, \$1,200 of the \$2,500 that were appropriated.

The results of our work, to begin at the beginning, relate to children. We found that all the schools were not devoting enough study to the subject of mental defectives. In many of the cities of the State there are classes especially for backward children; I mean those that are naturally backward, not merely those that by absence have become backward in their studies, but the really mentally defective. Unfortunately, these classes only meet five days a week, only five hours a day. They meet, as a rule, in a building where the other scholars are. The teacher generally has very little training in the kind of work that she is called upon to perform, and the result is that the schools are not doing the best possible work for this class of unfortunate children.

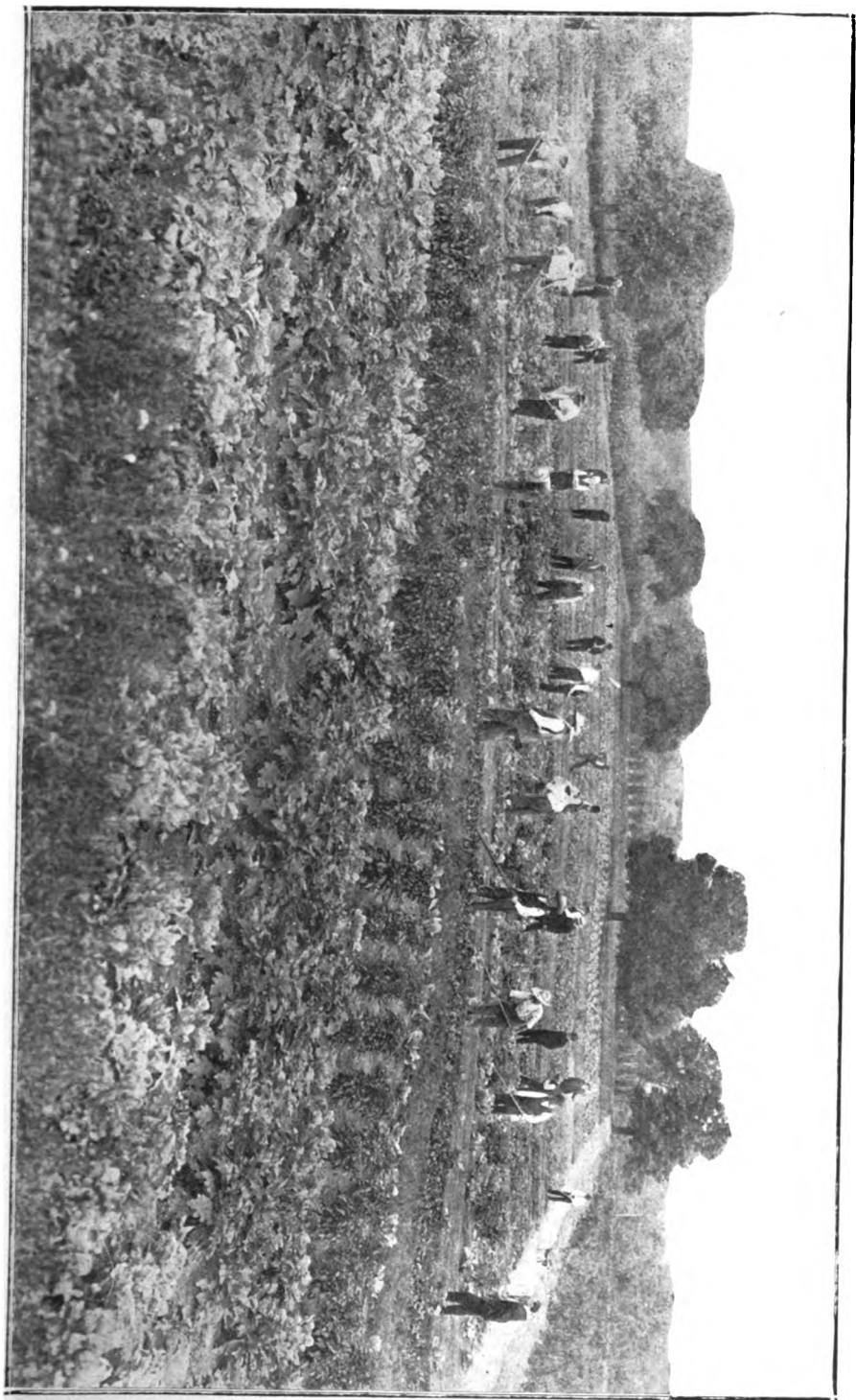
As a member of the board of education, the great difficulty, as I find it, is that the parents do not realize the conditions their children are in. It is so easy to think that Mr. Jones' child requires special treatment, but to think there is nothing the matter with your own child, except she had the measles which kept her out of school, and is "backward." The hardest work we have among the population of the State is to persuade fathers and mothers that the children are actually mentally defective.

Then we should go a step further. We feel there should be an effort made by the medical inspectors of the schools to study every child in relation to its nervous condition—not those who are mentally deficient, but those who are perfectly normal except for the fact that they show certain nervous conditions, and then

endeavor to have the training of those children of such a character that they will not break down. We are quite sure that many cases that are now in insane asylums would not be there if early in life they had been removed from the schools, and put in outdoor environments where their training would be less the training of the brain and more the training of the hand and eye, where they would have become strong and healthy. They never would have become the people who set the world on fire because of the great things done, but the chances are they never would have lost their reason and inhabited the State Hospital for the Insane.

Now, as to the people other than children, the men and women. The first thing we find in relation to the mental defective is that the State is not giving them occupation enough. The fact that they are overcrowded is patent to everyone. The Hospital for the Insane that is built to accommodate 1,600 people, and has in it 2,300, I don't have to tell you, is overcrowded; an asylum built to hold 400, and has 800, I don't have to tell you that that is overcrowded. Almost all of our institutions are overcrowded. We find in all of them, with almost no exception, that there is insufficient work and occupation for the patients. We find patients in this condition—sitting with their arms folded and nothing to do. Some of them work for a while in the laundry, some wait upon table, but the great majority have nothing to do, so we asked the question of the various people who were good enough to give us the benefit of their advice, how many of the insane, as a rule, could be put to work, and the result of our investigations show that about 35 per cent. would work without any help whatever. You couldn't keep them from work if they had the opportunity, and that about 35 per cent. more would work with urging. They would require some help; 30 per cent. were incapable of working. We found in both State and county hospitals that nothing like 70 per cent. of the patients were at work. We found, where they were at work, they were happy, better, less trouble to the institution, far less of a nuisance to themselves and to their fellow-patients. In one of the county asylums which I visited, and in which I was lacking just as the

New Jersey State Hospital at Morris Plains. Voluntary Competitive Gardening for Patients.



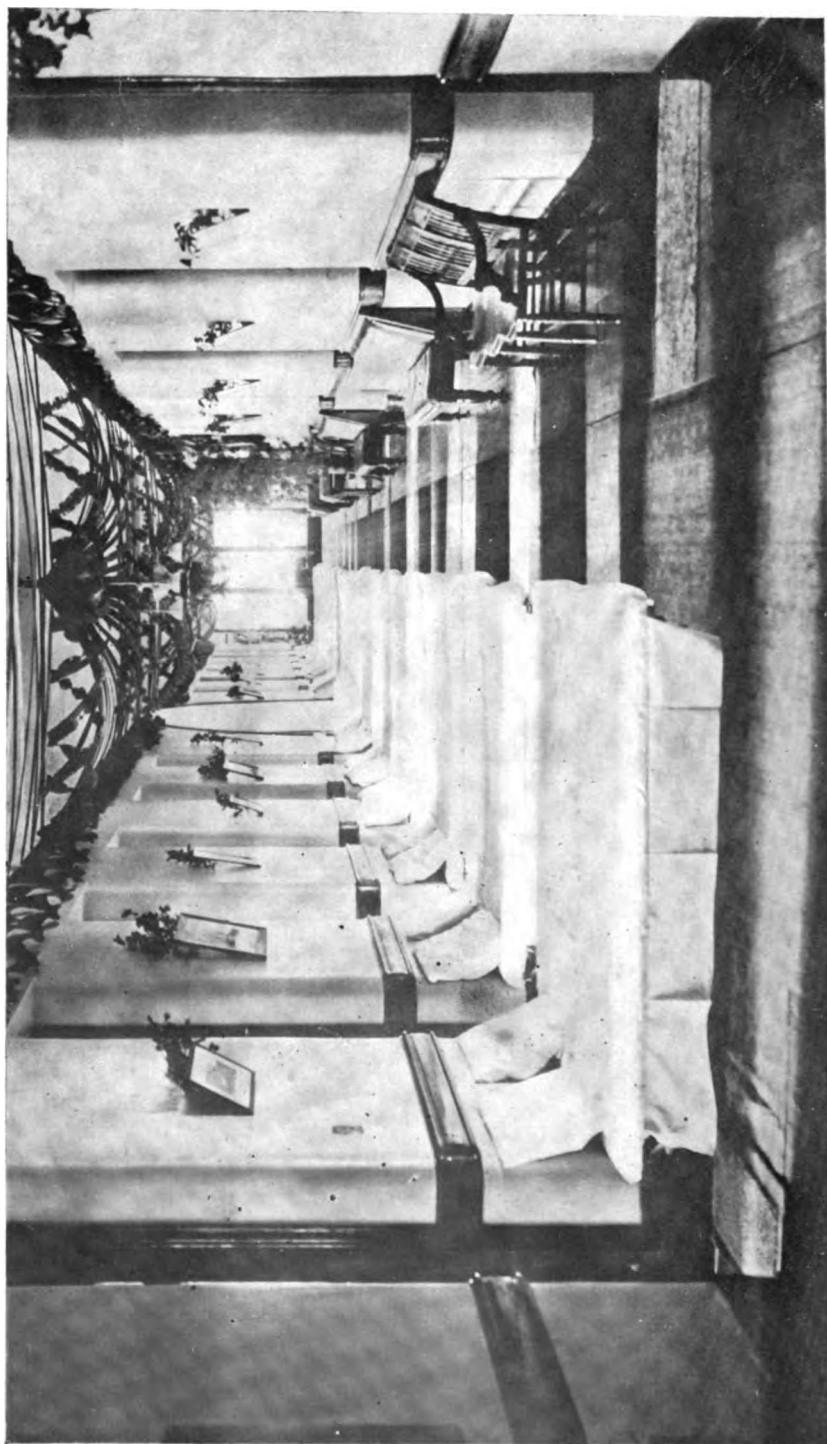
others, I urged more occupation. A week before coming here the chairman of the asylum committee of the board of freeholders invited me to see the institution. I went down to the asylum to see what had been done. They had three or four more men at work. I saw one man, about 61, knitting stockings on a knitting machine. I stood and watched him. He thoroughly enjoyed his work, and he was knitting all the stockings that was necessary for 250 patients, so that is a matter of economy. It is positively pitiful to see these poor men and poor women sitting around with nothing to do. They are, to a degree, just like you and me; their needs are very much like ours. If you and I had to sit for hours at a time, day in and day out, with others, walking up and down for exercise, now and then taken into the open and brought back, I am not sure but we would go crazy ourselves, and these men and women whose minds are defective should be given occupation. The county of Essex gives the most desirable industry of any institution I visited, and I never found a happier lot of people than those at work, and they were doing excellent work. There was one class in which about fifty women and teachers were doing embroidery work; the men were making baskets, weaving carpets, making stockings, shoes, and to a large degree doing the work that was necessary to maintain the institution. So we found it was a matter of economy, as well as a matter of keeping their minds busy.

How shall the State take care of this great surplus? This surplus which seems to be growing? We are not sure that there are any more mentally defective people now in proportion to the population than there were fifty years ago. The statistics of half a century ago were very poor and, therefore, we could not ascertain the facts. Times have become different in the last fifty years; the whole nation is in a more severe struggle for existence, and now we look at the only man who is able to support himself as the ten-unit man, or possibly an eight-unit man, and the State must take care of the six-unit man, where, ten years ago, it didn't have to. I am not certain that I can say that there are more insane or mentally defective in proportion to the population than fifty years ago, but I am sure of this—the State is

more careful of its mental defectives, giving more attention to them, looking after them better than it did fifty years ago. What shall we do with all these people crowded in these institutions? The first thought is, naturally, to "build a new institution." The idea twenty or thirty years ago was to build one great big institution like Morris Plains, like Trenton. We are quite sure that isn't the best thing to do, because we have learned new and better methods of the treatment of the mental defective. But we cannot tear down these institutions, the State cannot afford to build new ones, and therefore the progress that we ought to make is being held back. Our feeling, therefore, is that we should not build new institutions, except much smaller ones, and our idea, first of all, is the colony plant. Put them upon rough lands, lands that they can work and land which is made better by their work. They are happier and healthier out in the open air, working almost from dawn to twilight; they are happier, stronger and better; tuberculosis ceases to be a factor in their lives. It will be wiser to build houses that will hold about fifty, and houses that will fall down in twenty or twenty-five years, so that after twenty-five years, if there is a new and better system for the treatment of the insane which has been developed, we shall be no longer hampered by buildings that cost a million or two millions of dollars that the State cannot afford to destroy, but buildings we will be glad to tear down and replace with others better adapted to the care of the feeble-minded and the epileptic.

That is about the work of the commission. To recommend to the State at once the erection of these colonies; no colony to hold more than three hundred patients; but the Legislature needed all the State's money and unfortunately it could not see its way clear to adopt the plan. Some year it may not be so.

We believe that there should be erected somewhere in the State a hospital—not an asylum—but a hospital to which you and I could go for treatment when suffering from a nervous trouble that we fear may develop into a mental one. There is no such place now in the State. We can go to Morris Plains and Trenton, but the very thought of the insane hospital deters us from going and undertaking the treatment that we need, therefore we



New Jersey Hospital at Morris Plains. Christmas Decorations of Ward 3-4 for Male Patients. Arrangement of Beds in Corridor showing Overcrowded Condition.

feel there should be established in the State of New Jersey a sort of a physiological laboratory where those of us who begin to break down should be allowed to go and stay three or four weeks, pay our board, medical fees, have our cases thoroughly studied. We have recommended that to the Legislature. We would like to see connected with every hospital in the State of New Jersey a psychopathic ward. There is hardly a hospital in the State of New Jersey, other than State or county institutions, that can now take care of an insane man temporarily. They have no conveniences, and, unfortunately, the physicians in charge as a rule have little or no knowledge of mental diseases. In our conversation with physicians throughout the State we found that a general complaint they had to make against themselves, "We do not know anything about the subject." Therefore we have advised that there be held in the various institutions in the State, built for the care of mental defectives, meetings of medical societies. Such work has been done in Vineland at the State Home for Feeble-Minded Women—the Cumberland County Medical Society has met there. If physicians were brought more in touch with the subject and with the patient, if it were possible to hold regular weekly or monthly clinics where physicians could come when patients were being examined, it would be an immense help to the ordinary practicing physician, who, so far as we can see, and he himself confesses, are practically helpless when taking up the work of mental disease.

This is practically the story of our work. It has been a pleasant one, a work that we hope will bring about some good for the State. We wish, so far as the Epileptic Village is concerned, that all epileptics be taken there. We found in county asylums, as well as State asylums, epileptic insane. We believe that that is wrong. Therefore we have advised in our report, and the Legislature has carried it out, that epilepsy be made a dominant factor. If the feeble men or women needing State care be epileptic, instead of being sent to Prof. Johnstone's training school or Dr. Hallowell's home, they should be sent to the Epileptic Village.

Lastly, we found that in only one county of the State was there any preparation made for the commitment in jail of an

insane person pending the time he was committed to a county or State hospital. A man is found upon the street insane. First thing a policeman does is to take him to jail—the last place, of course, he ought to take him—but it is the first place because it is the only place he knows. Frequently for weeks he is confined with criminals, and his only crime is that he is insane. In Atlantic county we found they had a padded cell so that the poor unfortunate could not beat his brains out while he is waiting for the county physician to come and decide his case. Our report has been printed, and I have no doubt Mr. Byers, who was our chairman, will be very glad to see that a copy of it is sent to every member of the Conference.

THE CHAIRMAN—I have great pleasure in announcing as the next speaker. Miss White, of Vineland.

Cranberries and Colony Contributions; or the Appeal of the Colony to a Dweller in the Pines.

PAPER BY MISS ELIZABETH C. WHITE, NEW LISBON.

At the meeting of this Conference in Princeton three years ago I spoke very briefly of the condition of the Italian women and children on the cranberry bogs of New Jersey, and later found my hearers were wondering if I really knew what I was talking about, if lack of experience had not possibly led me to form erroneous opinions.

I have been asked to tell you to-day of the appeal of the Burlington County Colony of the Training School at Vineland to some of us who are supporting it.

These two seemingly different subjects are closely associated in my mind, and the same experience which has familiarized me with the condition of the Italian cranberry pickers is the basis of my interest in the Vineland colony movement.

To avoid the former lack of understanding and at the risk of seeming egotistical, it is necessary to give you some account of this experience.

One of the fundamental things leading to the organization of the colony in Burlington county was the research work by Miss

Elizabeth Kite, first for the training school and later for the New Jersey Commissioner of Charities and Correction, into social conditions in some sections of the pines.

I am a "piney" myself; that I am not generally so classed is simply because of the degree of success my forbears have achieved in their struggle for existence in the Jersey pines. My home is on a farm within fifteen minutes' walk of the continuous pine belt which stretches from here (Asbury Park) to Cape May, and in many places more than half way across the State. I was born there, as was my mother before me.

During my mother's girlhood her father had a good market for most of his farm produce at Hanover Furnace, seven miles up in the pines, where cannon and balls were made for the war of 1812, and where, at that time, his cousin still conducted a thriving business of making pig iron out of the native bog ore.

This grandfather of mine early became interested in the possibility of cultivating the cranberries, which have always grown wild in the bog lands of the Jersey pines. Considering his long association with Hanover Furnace and knowledge of the land thereabout, it is not strange that, after his first tentative experiments, he should have located his bog within two miles of that village, on Cranberry Run, where the Indians gathered the wild fruit years before white men knew them.

Here he had developed a good bog of forty acres before his death, when I was ten years old; and here my father, whose own father was another pioneer cranberry grower and who cleared his own first bog at an early age, has continued their development till they are the largest cranberry bogs in the country.

True child of the pines and the cranberry bogs, from babyhood I have been closely associated with their less fortunate children. The greater portion of the help in our home and on the farm came from the pines. For a time I attended the public school near my home with the other pine children. Within the past year a child of one of those old schoolmates has been admitted to the Training School at Vineland.

In 1893 I began giving out tickets on the cranberry bog, and believe I have not missed being on the bogs fifteen days, while picking was going on, during the past twenty seasons. The work

involves too long hours to travel twice daily the seven miles which separate my home from the bogs; in consequence, from Monday morning till Saturday night I have lived with the families of the various pine men who have been our superintendents during the twenty years, and thereby was blessed with the friendship of one of the finest characters I have ever known, the mother of our present superintendent.

When my personal work at the bog began all the help, including the 200 odd pickers, were from the pines. After two years these began turning to other work to such an extent that we engaged ten or fifteen Italians for the picking season, and they have gradually replaced the pine people, the better classes of whom have found more profitable work, till latterly the 400 to 500 pickers have been more than 90 per cent. Italians.

For thirteen seasons my work required me to be right there on the bog with the pickers, pine people and Italians, every hour of every day that picking was being done.

At the end of the thirteen years it became necessary to put on several men to give out the tickets and to plan the work, so that men of comparatively low intelligence and little education could give the tickets and keep correct account of berries received. Several of the pine men who have done this work the last few years were babies on the bog when I started, and the task of straightening out their ticket bags and accounts every night and going along the line of pickers every day, exchanging their tickets of small denominations for others worth \$5, has kept me in close touch with my old friends.

Always feeling an interest in social work and uplift movements, and reading all literature on such subjects as came in my way, I have never been associated with any organized work of this kind, for it seemed that any effort of mine would be more directly applied and bring larger results in assisting my father, see that these hundreds of people working with us were fairly treated, and extending a helping hand when needed to those whose circumstances we knew so well. In the last few years, however, two different charitable organizations have been brought especially to my attention by extending their efforts to include the Italian cranberry pickers and the New Jersey "pineys," the

two classes of people with whom my work has brought me in such close relations.

The contrast between the methods of the National Child Labor Committee and those of the gentlemen who planned the Burlington County Colony emphasizes what is to me one of the strongest appeals in behalf of the colony.

Recently I attended a lecture by Dr. Kerr Boyce Tupper, who told us that in a speech at a dinner at which they were both present, Minister Woo, Ambassador from China, said that the negative golden rule of Confucius, "*Do not* unto others as ye would that they *should not* do unto you," had resulted in the negative civilization of China, while the positive golden rule of Christ, "*Do* unto others as ye would that they *should do* unto you," had resulted in the positive civilization of America.

This, it seems to me, is the fundamental difference between the work of the National Child Labor Committee and the Vineland Training School.

The National Child Labor Committee says, "The child shall not work." This negative ideal is vastly below that of the Training School, which says "The child shall work in such a way and at such things as will best contribute to its own welfare and happiness and that of society," and then by careful, accurate, scientific research the Training School seeks to classify and locate the cause of the limitations of the children in its care that it may work the more intelligently to secure for each that kind of happiness after which follows all else that is desirable.

Perhaps it is the inferiority of its ideal which renders the National Child Labor Committee liable to be tempted by inferior methods of securing its objects of arousing public sympathy and securing contributions and legislation to prevent children from working. That is for you, who have had experience in charitable and correctional work, to judge; and it is only the hope that it may assist in correctly valuing the work to which our attention is more especially directed to-day that justifies, at this time, an account of the work of the National Child Labor Committee on the cranberry bogs as I have seen it.

During the fall of 1910, a Mr. Brown spent a week or more at Pemberton, N. J., visiting the bogs within easy reach, ours among

them. He represented a magazine syndicate, he said, and expressing himself much pleased with his interview promised to send me a copy of any article resulting from his visits to the bogs.

He and a companion, who sometimes accompanied him, took many photographs and left our Italian bosses with the impression that they were to receive copies of the pictures. The whole body of pickers was on the *qui vive* to see those pictures, and for the remainder of the season I was unable to answer the numerous questions showered upon me in regard to them.

In November of the same year, my father received from a cranberry grower in Massachusetts a leaflet issued by the National Child Labor Committee soliciting Thanksgiving contributions, upon which he had placed large exclamation points in red ink. On the front page was the legend, "Did I Pick Your Thanksgiving Cranberries"? and the picture of a child carrying a box of the fruit.

Later in the season Millie Di Giovanni, a little girl attending school at the Madonna House in Philadelphia, discovered in a copy of the "Survey" on the library table some of the pictures she had seen taken of herself and companions at Whitesbog the previous fall. Delighted, she spread the news; it reached the ears of Gus Donato, who engages our Italian pickers for us, and he, failing to find the "Survey" on the news stands of Philadelphia, secured the copy from the Madonna House and sent it to me.

Thus it was, from magazine and leaflet secured by indirect means, that the cranberry growers of New Jersey first learned that anyone found anything wrong with the presence of the children on the bogs.

Among the other indictments on the inner pages of the leaflet was this: "517 children worked seven days each week, one bog only observing Sunday." The total number of children found on the bogs had already been given as 864; a little figuring shows that by the National Child Labor Committee's own count more than one-third of the children on whom they reported were found on this exceptional bog, though it was exceptional only in this one thing.

The child on the front page of the leaflet was recognized by Gus Donato as one he had helped Mr. Brown pose at Whitesbog for this photograph; in reply to a letter from my father, Mr. Lovejoy acknowledged that Mr. Brown was a National Child Labor Committee's agent. Ours was the only bog about Pember-ton where so many children could be found, and the others sometimes picked on Sunday when they were pressed, though it is not the custom in other parts of the State. Therefore it is clear that by their own count more than one-third of the children reported on by the National Child Labor Committee were found at Whitesbog.

I have seen the exhibits of the National Child Labor Committee at Princeton in 1911, at Orange in 1912, the article in the "Survey" the winter of 1910-11, and the "Good Housekeeping" article last November, and I should estimate that from one-third to one-half the pictures used in these articles and exhibits in regard to cranberry picking had been taken at Whitesbog. I cannot always tell unless I recognize the faces, the conditions on the various bogs are so alike.

Now, if more than one-third of the children on whom the National Child Labor Committee reported were found at Whitesbog, and a large proportion of the pictures used were taken there, where for thirteen years I was on the bog with the pickers, every hour of every day that picking was being done, and for seven years since have personally directed the work, it would seem as if I should be able to judge the fairness of their report.

The National Child Labor Committee claims that on the bogs the children work from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M. I know there has not been a single day during the past twenty years when the adults have made this time on Whitesbog. There are sometimes two or three days during the season when the pickers start as early as seven, though it is more often eight or nine, and there may be an evening or two when a group of pickers will work till six to avoid a long walk back in the morning for an hour's work, but the two extremes have never coincided.

The hours of picking are very irregular, depending on the dew, the weather, the distance from the quarters and the need

to get the berries off quickly. Last fall, when the hurry was as great as it possibly could be, we kept a careful record and found that we averaged eight and one-half hours, not counting the days we were kept entirely off the bog by rain. Of course, I have no personal knowledge of the hours kept on other bogs, but long experience with the requirements and limitations of the cranberry business teaches me that the grower who has such poor judgment in the conduct of his business as to have his berries picked when they are not in fit condition, will need but few people to gather his fruit.

When one of our cranberry growers wrote to the editor of "Good Housekeeping" magazine remonstrating on the misrepresentation in the article of last November, he replied, "We did all we could to ascertain the truth as to the situation in New Jersey, and had the pages read just before the magazine went to press by Mr. Owen Lovejoy, of the National Child Labor Committee." In this "Good Housekeeping" article the statement is made that the housing conditions on the bog of Mr. Joseph J. White, my father, are as good as could be expected for the short time they are occupied. By their own statements, therefore, the National Child Labor Committee admit that more than one-third of the children whose condition they are reporting have as good housing conditions as their brief stay on the bogs warrants. Our pickers' quarters were copied from those of our neighbor, Mr. Budd, and a number of the other large bogs that I have visited have houses of the same type. Undoubtedly, inadequate housing conditions do exist on some of the bogs, and overcrowding is liable to occur on any bog when an unexpectedly large crop occurs.

In judging the seriousness of these conditions, however, it should be remembered that these quarters on the bogs are camps, that while there the people live the life of campers, working, cooking, eating, playing out of doors. The houses are used for sleeping only, and the poorest ones are pretty sure to be well-ventilated, even when the windows and doors are closed.

The ignorance of the pickers, the Italian bosses, and oftimes of the bog owners, of the rules of sanitation is apt to make these

camps unsavory spots; but remember, they are occupied but four to eight weeks, as a rule, and the rest of the year sun, rain and fragrant pine air work their own sweet and cleansing will. I have never heard of an epidemic on any cranberry bog.

The occasional overcrowding of the pickers' quarters is robbed of its greatest menace by the fact that through generations of practice the Italians have adapted their social customs to living in chastity in close quarters.

These considerations do not in any way excuse the cranberry grower from providing adequate accommodations so far as he can foresee the need, or maintaining sanitary conditions so far as he is able; but they do greatly minimize any danger there may be to the pickers or society from such errors as occur.

It was in the "Survey" article, I think, that Mr. Lovejoy first wrote: "The sight of the padrone swinging his club over the backs of tiny girls becomes too common to arouse interest." At any rate it was quoted again, as a telling phrase, in the "Good Housekeeping" article, where there was also published a large picture of three small boys picking cranberries with a "row boss" standing beside them with his heavy cane, and printed beneath it: "Who is the man with the club? Next to the owner of the bog, he is the one most interested in keeping that line of little pickers busy from sun to sun. The cramped, crouching position is very fatiguing. Not so the padrone's, who watches—and for some reason carries a club."

No! no one said that the club waving above the tiny girl ever descended, or that the "row boss" ever hit the small boys; none of the cranberry growers listed by name in "Good Housekeeping" would have the ghost of a chance in a libel suit; none the less the false impression is successfully conveyed to the reader that on the cranberry bogs it is the custom to club the children that the growers may become rich on their toil.

Is there one of you who imagines that, if by some sudden misfortune you were shorn of every humanitarian impulse, you could profit financially by the labor of any child of three or five or seven or nine? Imagine you did not care in the least for the welfare of any of those children you know the best and believe

the brightest ever, and were determined that they should labor for your financial profit. Would it not inevitably cost you much more in time or money than the labor of the child could possibly be worth? Verily the National Child Labor Committee credits the cranberry growers with marvelous ability.

The stout staff carried by all "row bosses" on the bogs is for the purpose of parting and lifting the cranberry vines, that he may see if the berries are properly picked, for the nature of the growth is such that half the fruit may be dropped on the ground unobserved without this close examination.

One of the great needs of the cranberry grower is help in picking his fruit, but if he desired he could never secure it by harsh treatment of the children. The Italian children are greatly beloved, if not always wisely, by their parents. The pickers come for the few weeks of the season only with no slightest obligation to come again, and a grower who permitted harsh treatment of the children by his employees, if not mobbed at once, would have to look elsewhere for help another season.

The parents teach the children to pick and encourage habits of industry, and, not being persons of refinement and perfect self-control, this instruction is sometimes accompanied with harsh words or even blows, but coaxing, cajoling and bribing are more often employed, and it is taken as a matter of course by both parents and children that the children spend a good portion of the time in play.

And they do have such a good time; I wish you could see the little boys trooping up and down the irrigating ditches, with trousers rolled high, picking water lilies and catching "bu' frogs"; the group of little girls having a merry funeral, with a nice little stick for a corpse and lavish decorations of wild flowers; the little man of five who, with the courage of his convictions, has stripped in the hot September sun for a bath in the irrigating ditch, where the sparkling brown water flows ten or twelve inches deep, while fifteen or twenty of his peers cheer him on from the bank; the party of larger boys who have stolen away from the crowd for a swim in the reservoir; the groups of little fathers and mothers tending their charges in the shade of pine

trees, or perhaps of a big umbrella advertising the advantages of Lit's store, while the grown-up mother works within easy call should any difficulty arise, and the grown-up father can, and generally does, stop, after bringing his boxes of berries to be emptied, to give the baby a sounding kiss; it is just as sweet and dear, if its face has gotten smudgy out there on the bog.

Loved as they are by parents none too wise, many of the children are much indulged and spoiled; the two thousand five hundred lemon sticks, to say nothing of the hundreds of pounds of other candies and cakes, purchased at the Whitesbog store and consumed by them during a single season of seven weeks, is eloquent testimony of this, and few of the parents, if they were inclined, have discipline perfect enough to be able to induce the child to work long after Nature tells him he has had enough.

The presence of all these children on the bogs causes great waste in wear and tear on the vines and in berries crushed and spilled; we don't mind those used as playthings—a little black-eyed, black-haired Italian girl with bracelets, necklace and crown of red cranberries strung on the long flexible vines is so attractive; but the waste is so great that cranberry growers would welcome any practical method of keeping the children off the bogs.

It is to be regretted that the stay of the children on the cranberry bogs keeps them from school the first few weeks of the term. This is highly disastrous to the school routine, and must be very annoying to the teachers; but, after all, the end in view is the training of these boys and girls to be self-supporting individuals, of a character as near our ideal of American citizenship as possible. It is generally conceded that our public schools are not ideal instruments in attaining this end, and it is conceivable that a few extra weeks on the bogs may further it. Weeks spent in the sweet pine air, with time divided between work and play—work which in no way taxes their powers and from which they experience the immediate advantage in the cakes and candy of the daily treat and the better clothes and food made possible for the winter.

The lesson of industry so learned is of no small value; and as

year after year I see the boys and girls who have been coming to the bog with their parents for many seasons, grown and equipped with a serviceable knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic in English, rise to positions from which they cannot afford to come back for the cranberries, I am convinced life on the bog has, at least, not prevented them from becoming self-supporting.

There are a few of my old boys and girls who have attained positions from which they can temporarily break away, at a pecuniary loss, and come back for the pleasure of the big picnic and the season's work in the open air which brings health and strength for the rest of the year. The most conspicuous example of these is Will Pragliese, who runs the Jefferson Hospital boot-blackening parlor, at Tenth and Walnut streets, Philadelphia. You can go and see him whenever you please.

He began coming to our bog about fifteen years ago, just a little chap, with his father and mother and three smaller sisters; he grew up and married Lizzie Tenuto, who began coming to Whitesbog about seventeen years ago, when little more than a baby. They have three little girls of their own now. Will has never missed but one season, though latterly he would have made more money if he had stayed in Philadelphia. He is my most valued ticket-giver, the dread "bushel man," for he has the knack of getting the work well done, with no rough words or scolding, and last fall he made not a single error in his accounts. The babies came pretty fast, and for three years Lizzie could not come, but last fall her health was very poor and the doctor told her she must get out of the city, so she and the three babies came with Will—a pale little ghost of a woman, she was not expected to pick; Will did not want her to; but she loved the work and to be with the crowd and would take her babies out whenever it was not too far. Sometimes she made a dollar a day besides caring for the babies—oh! so much better than her mother's babies were cared for. I wish you could have seen how plump and pretty she was at the end of the season. "Oh," she told me, "I feel so good here and the air is so sweet I tell Will I want to stay for always."

Will's three sisters are all married to men who cannot afford to come and pick cranberries, and they are too busy with babies to come often, but once in a while they come to see the mother, who works at Whitesbog much of the year, all alone now that the father is dead—the good, steady-working little mother who can speak no English, and can never hope for work that pays much better; and I see what fine young women her daughters have become, speaking English easily.

These and many other things like them I see year after year, and *I know* that employment on the cranberry bogs, in spite of its occasional hardships, has furnished to many field-working Italian peasants a valuable stepping-stone, broken and imperfect though it may be, in their struggle upward into the more perfect American citizenship; furnishing as it does work not so unlike that to which they were trained in the old country, and by which they can earn much more than at most other work available for the newcomer who speaks no English, and at the same time enables them to give their children the advantages of the better schools in the city the greater portion of the term. If between five and six thousand of these children, as stated in the introduction to the "Good Housekeeping" article, come from two school districts in Philadelphia, would it not seem wiser to modify the system to the needs of the children rather than try to have between five and six thousand children, with their fathers and mothers, brothers and sisters, adapt their lives to the need of the system?

It is very seldom that American-born Italians, by the time they are twenty-five, have not positions too lucrative to leave for the cranberry season.

Other statements of the National Child Labor Committee I find false or exaggerated in the light of my experience, but lack of time makes it inadvisable to discuss them.

Their's is the negative way of attempting to right a wrong. Seeing real or imaginary harm to the child on the cranberry bogs, without saying one word about it to those who best know the children and the conditions surrounding them, and who are in a position to right much that may be wrong if they only see

the need and how it may be met, they publish a grossly exaggerated picture of the evil in hopes of arousing public opinion to force legislators who know nothing about the thing, to pass laws which they, the National Child Labor Committee, have drawn up. These laws, they hope, will tear down the evil, no matter if much good comes with it, and when this is accomplished they blindly hope that somehow good will grow up to fill the yawning void.

Of course, I personally know nothing of the work of the National Child Labor Committee in any field but that of the cranberry bogs. We can, however, only judge of the unknown by the known, and others interested in the welfare of children find the same character of work in other fields that I find in this.

Have any of you read "The Child That Toileth Not," by Thomas Robinson Dawley? The book rings true to me; the character of the lower grades of "poor whites" of the South, there pictured, is very like the lower grades of our pine people. "The Child That Toileth Not," by Thomas Robinson Dawley, the Gracia Publishing Co., New York. The preface is worth reading.

The correspondence between my father and myself and Mr. Lovejoy which followed the publication of the earlier articles left me convinced that the object of the investigators of the National Child Labor Committee, consciously or unconsciously, was not so much to learn the truth as to discover something which could be stretched into a sensational story to assist in attracting contributions and accomplishing "Thou shalt not" legislation. Very despondent of the possibilities of righting any wrongs by such a backhanded method—which, in my own mind, I extended to most organized charity—I still hoped there might be some happy exceptions.

One hot day the following summer, just as we were sitting down to dinner, one exception knocked at the door, though when I opened it I saw only a little lady who had walked far in the heat. She took dinner with us, and in the talk that followed we learned that her name was Elizabeth Kite, and that she was compiling the family histories of some of the children at Vine-

land. She had already done considerable work in our vicinity, and my mother and I were able to add to her list of names and characteristics of grandfathers and great-grandfathers, sisters, cousins and aunts, for the families she was studying had been our near neighbors for generations.

Our family followed her work with the keenest interest through the months that followed. Through association with her we became interested in the Vineland work, and learned of the development and application of the Binet test, of how the research workers at Vineland had proved beyond doubt that the feeble-minded child suffers from as definite a lack of faculties as the child born without a hand, but that the school had further proved that the existing faculties could be trained to a more or less high degree of usefulness in favorable environment.

We learned that the higher grades of feeble-minded children, to all but the expert, seem as bright as others up to a certain age, when their powers cease to develop.

We learned that there was no sharp line between the feeble-minded and the fit, but that the mentality of mankind varies by almost imperceptible degrees, from the idiot, with no more powers than a vegetable, to the most able of the world's scientists and administrators, but that most of us are in the middle classes, just tending upward a little or shading downward. Of course, *we* are all tending upward, and our neighbors when they do foolish or unwise things, in spite of their desire to do right, are shading downward just a little bit.

All this was very interesting, and threw a great explanatory light on things we had known for years. Now we understood why it was that so many of the bright appearing little boys and girls about us had developed into such inadequate men and women; now we understood why financial or other aid extended to a shiftless family so seldom accomplished more than relief of immediate needs. We did not, however, see where we could take hold effectively to remedy the wrong about us, of which we had been painfully conscious for years, especially the gross immorality among the lower grades of people, which spreads as an infection to the more intelligent, and to which the care the

Italian cranberry pickers take of their women and girls affords such a shining contrast.

Prof. Johnstone and Mr. Byers, however, saw what we might do, and one day the latter part of last August about twenty of us from near Pemberton, who had been much interested in Miss Kite's work, sat under the trees and listened to their first unfolding of the plan for a Training School Colony for Burlington county, a plan by which we and the other people of the county might co-operate with the State Departments of Charity and Correction, Education, Forestry and Agriculture in starting a colony, the operation of which was to be guided by the parent Training School at Vineland.

This institution had been largely instrumental in proving that all those crimes which fill our prisons and reform schools were, to a great extent, the result of feeble-mindedness, and it had been signally successful in training the beginnings of useless, injurious members of society into happy, partially or wholly self-supporting individuals. Had we not reason to believe that in assisting the further evolution of its work right there in our own community, we were attacking the base of all those evils in our own community of which feeble-mindedness was the cause?

The practical common sense, the apparent workableness and economy of the plan appealed strongly to those present at the Pemberton meeting; a committee was appointed to further the work and \$250 subscribed as a start.

The Pemberton meeting was followed by others in many Burlington county towns, at which Prof. Johnstone and Mr. Byers laid their plans before groups of people already more or less interested by the published accounts of Miss Kite's work.

At each of these meetings a committee was formed, and a number of these local committees met in Burlington High School one evening last November and organized themselves into a County Committee, with Mr. Daniel Bishop, of Florence, as chairman and Miss Margaret Haines, of Burlington, as secretary. Riverton was found to have the only committee which already had promises of money, but the Florence Committee had their work well planned and were sending copies of the "Bur-

lington Enterprise," which contained a good account of the Colony plan, to every household in Florence township, with the intention of following the paper with a personal visit. This plan seemed workable for the other committees, so several hundred more copies of this number of the "Enterprise" and reprints of the Colony article were ordered and sent to the various local committees, by whom they were distributed and followed up more or less imperfectly, according to the enthusiasm of the members.

The Burlington County Committee has been a very necessary factor in the starting of the Colony, but the organization has been loose and imperfect, and the degree of success that has rewarded its efforts is because of the realization of the beautiful ideal expressed by Prof. Johnstone in his latest report as Superintendent of the Training School: "I feel that we must not waste our efforts and energy in begging, but striving at every point we must so labor each day that the results will be of such a character that all will feel it a privilege to give."

The results of the Training School work have been such that those individuals who in one way or another have obtained a fair knowledge of them felt that it was indeed a privilege to have the opportunity of helping to extend so fruitful a work in our own country. Those people who saw the larger possibilities of the work just turned in as individuals and did everything in their power to help along this thing that was going to help home folks and home evils.

There was something in the *results* of the work of the Training School, or the *opportunity* offered to help known individuals, that appealed to every class; the workers for the Colony had but to spread the knowledge of them.

The people of Hanover Furnace—the thriving village of my grandfather's day has dwindled now to five poverty-stricken families—contributed \$5 to the Colony because they heard of the happiness and improvement of Harold Scull, who had been taken from Hanover to Vineland a few months before in a most miserable condition.

The Italian foundry workers of Florence gave their dimes and

quarters to Mr. Bishop to help the "kiddie," the imbecile Italian girl who was such a problem in their midst.

Many gave because the results of the research work at Vine-land indicate that each feeble-minded child so cared for as to leave no descendants is one tiny step forward in solving the great social problems.

The results of the work of the Research Department of the Training School, explaining the cause of so much unhappiness and crime; the results of the Training School proper, bringing happiness and partial self-support to those who would otherwise be dependents, unhappy themselves and the cause of unhappiness to others; the results of the work of the Extension Department and School for Teachers in spreading knowledge of the cause of so many social problems and suggesting remedies; the results of all these activities prove the Training School a beneficent force, discovering, encouraging, fostering the good, all entangled and oftentimes overlaid with evil, till the evil is suppressed and overshadowed by the good. This work, beginning with the feeble children in its care, it is now extending to other communities—happy Burlington county to be the first.

This is the positive method of dealing with social problems, and as the Colony develops in our midst it is certain that many individuals will better learn to apply this positive method to their own problems. Learn how they may better encourage the good in their own children instead of expending all their efforts in trying to suppress the evil. Learn to foster the good in the conditions and people helping in their own homes, on their own farms, in their own factories, till the good overshadows the evil.

The contrast of the effectiveness of this positive method of dealing with wrong and its economy of attracting the moral and financial support of the community in which the wrong occurs with the ineffective wastefulness of the negative method of publishing the evil in such exaggerated form as to arouse the ridicule and antagonism of everyone knowing the actual conditions; in hopes that distant money and influence will be brought to bear in tearing out the evil, is strongly brought out by the attitude of the Burlington county cranberry growers toward the

Colony work of the Training School and the cranberry work of the National Child Labor Committee.

Of the twelve individuals and companies listed in "Good Housekeeping" as producing 75 per cent. of the cranberries in New Jersey, seven have their homes, or bogs, or both, in Burlington county and form the intelligent portion of the community with the best first-handed knowledge of the condition of the pine people, reported by Miss Kite, and of the Italian children on the bogs reported by the National Child Labor Committee.

In reality the cranberry bogs give to some thousands of the poorest city dwellers an opportunity of spending five to seven weeks in the same air that attracted George Gould to Lakewood, in the same pine woods that the Training School authorities consider most beneficial to their charges, under conditions which, considering the lack of intention on the part of all concerned, coincide amazingly with the methods of the Training School in attaining happiness and development through simple inexpensive pleasures and the ordinary, necessary occupations of life.

With apologies to Prof. Johnstone and his latest report, which I hope you have all read, in which, in speaking of the children at the Training School, he says: "They gratify their love of animals and have the pleasure of having a pet and at the same time drive their horses to the plow and cultivator, and milk their cows. They have the freedom of out-of-doors and the happiness of watching a plant grow and bringing in vegetables and fruits to the tables. They even have the pleasure of splashing around in the mud and water while helping to mend a leak in the water main. They push a squeaking wheelbarrow or a rattling lawn mower for the pleasure of the noise it makes, but they are moving a load of bricks or smoothing a lawn." These Italian cranberry pickers have an outing in the country and go home with many times as much money in their pockets as when they came. The children have the freedom of out-of-doors and the proud consciousness of earning their own school clothes. They have the pleasure of roaming the woods and gather a store of mushrooms to dry for the winter. They come in close association

with English-speaking Americans and both sides lose their prejudices. The children learn industry and thrift, drop the scabs of the skin disease they brought from the city and grow rosy and plump.

Compared with what has been spent in children's country-week associations and advertising the evils of the cranberry bogs, such a little money and effort would cause the good to push the small evil clear out of sight; and if we can reconcile the fact that Nature's chosen season of ripening the fruit clashes with man's chosen time of starting children to school, make these picking seasons simply ideal outings for thousands of poor but self-respecting city people.

That the cranberry growers are not insensible to childish needs is shown by the fact that the same men who are listed in the "Good Housekeeping" article, the same men who are responsible for the cranberry bogs classed by George Creel in the March "Century," with the rotten spots of the country, have by their personal contributions and efforts on the various committees, put in more than one thousand of the six thousand five hundred dollars now in the Colony treasury.

Not a cranberry grower of my acquaintance but would oppose any measure of the National Child Labor Committee with money or influence, for to a man they are convinced that a wise measure could not originate with an association presenting to the public conditions with which they, the cranberry growers, are so familiar, with such poor judgment that the presentation would be comically absurd if it were not tragic in the waste and misdirection of human sympathies it is causing.

I suppose no vital thing was ever done without giving offense to someone, without raising some opposition, and the work for the Colony has been no exception to the rule.

As we collected money for the work the objection most frequently made was, "Why, Miss Kite is interested in that, isn't she? Oh, no! I couldn't give anything to that. Why, she makes out that Burlington county is a dreadful place, and 't isn't a bit worse than anywhere else. Why, I had a letter from my friend in New York the other day, and she wanted to know how I ever could live down here with such dreadful people!"

Now, it happens that all the families figuring in Miss Kite's report live within four miles of my home, most of them nearer, pretty close neighbors in a thinly-settled country, and I and the members of my family consider that report very fine and strictly true. Her research work necessarily concerned the lowest type of pine people and while she fully appreciates this and gave due credit to the better class in her article in the "Survey," people reading the "Survey" in New York or elsewhere would be slightly impressed with the exception as compared with the life-like sketch of the lower-grade families with which her work was concerned and would be left with the impression that she pictures the Jersey pines as chiefly inhabited by this low class of people. This sense of unfairness in those who have given the matter little thought and have no personal knowledge of the pines or the investigation is the source of most of the opposition met by the Colony workers; and this opposition rapidly loses force as people realize that those most familiar with the conditions reported are warm supporters of the Colony.

The people who figure chiefly in this report, though my near neighbors, I do not know as individuals nearly so well as scores of other pine people with whom I have worked at the bog. The families with whom Miss Kite's investigations were concerned are of too low a type to fit in where the rules and regulations are for workers several grades higher. A number of them have started picking for us from time to time, but it never lasts long. They want to pick on our bog to-day, when the picking is good, and to-morrow, when we get in poorer picking, and they hear Jones' picking is good, they go over to Jones. They want to start picking to-day at dawn and to-morrow near noon, if they feel like it. As it is not fair to the larger number of better workers to permit this, I have not a close personal acquaintance with these lowest-grade families.

With the class of workers whom I know the best, however, I find so rare the ability to apply knowledge or skill attained in one class of work to other work just a little bit different, that I realize the comparative futility of school work, as at present done, to aid this class of people, whom no one would dream of wishing to eliminate as unfit to earn a better living.

It is my hope that as we see by what methods the low-grade children in our Colony are taught to be more efficient and happier workers than many of the higher-grade children outside, we, the people of Burlington county, will learn gradually to give the higher-grade children of Burlington county, of the pines, the advantages of similar methods which will naturally grow out of those used in the Colony. This is the strongest appeal that the Colony makes to me as one living in the pines.

Then, too, in the Colony I see a new method of attacking a social problem; a co-operation of scientific research and trained management with the intelligent thought and benevolent impulses of the locality in which the problem is to be dealt with.

This co-operation would seem to be applicable to any social problem in any place, and this possibility is the appeal of the Colony to me as an intelligent member of society.

It is pleasant to think I have been able ever so slightly to assist in extending so vital a thing to my own community.

THE CHAIRMAN—Mr. Read's paper and Miss White's paper are open for discussion.

MR. STONAKER—The last paper is too important to be passed. It is too important at this late hour for discussion. I would like to submit to you, if proper to come before the Executive Committee, the suggestion that this particular paper be released in some form of publication as a pamphlet, for all who are seriously contemplating studying and considering the question, and I would like to pass that suggestion through you to the Executive Committee that we might have that in pamphlet form in advance of the regular publication.

THE PRESIDENT—I don't know whether that can be acted upon by the Executive Committee or not. The committee will be glad to take it up and do what they can if it is the wish of the Conference. There seems to be a desire to have that paper in shape for careful study in advance of the publication of the proceedings, and the Executive Committee will very kindly do what they can in that respect.

Some Thoughts About the Melting Pot.

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, DIRECTOR OF EXTENSION DEPARTMENT,
THE TRAINING SCHOOL AT VINELAND, N. J.

The purpose of our meeting here in the State Conference of Charities and Correction is the improvement of social conditions. We try to effect this chiefly through improvement of the various remedial agencies, such as hospitals, reformatories, charity organization societies, child-saving agencies, and the like, whose purpose is the care or cure or rehabilitation of those members of the body politic who are out of step with the orderly progress of society. Some of these are abnormals. Many of them, like the mentally defective, and especially the defective-delinquents, are clearly degenerates whom we must take in charge for their own good and our own safety.

But many of those with whom we are concerned are normal and are out of step through the faults of other people or by untoward social conditions. Given a fair chance they soon take a reasonably good place in the world's procession. Those who speak our language and who have always lived among people of like customs and habits with the majority can usually be reached and dealt with. Just as soon as their irregularities are corrected, their conditions adjusted, they are readily assimilated, and no longer appear as dependents, defectives or delinquents. For many years past thousands of dependent or neglected children have been taken annually out of evil circumstances and placed in wholesome ones, and the great majority of them have disappeared from the ranks of dependency because they have been assimilated into the great body of orderly citizens.

The same good fortune has awaited a vast number of the younger delinquents who have come in conflict with the law. Perhaps the proportion of success in dealing with them has been smaller than with those simply dependent. Yet, on the whole, the results of reformatory efforts have been, if not entirely satisfactory, still such as to justify our methods.

There are other departments of social and civic duty which belong to society as a whole, concerning which we see more or less clearly what should be done, although we are only just beginning to do it. Among these we may place the care and permanent control of the mentally defective as perhaps the most urgent of the duties which we recognize and yet do not fulfill. Another as serious, more difficult because the method of doing it is still to be developed, though the subjects are perhaps not so numerous, is the treatment of the unemployed and the unemployable. Many other social maladjustments with which we hesitate to cope adequately will occur to you. Probably each of us has some special burden of the kind on his heart and conscience as something that should be done if only the way to do it could be opened.

I think we are sometimes in danger of forgetting that to a very large extent the work of social betterment must be concerned with individuals. It is true that there are some social reforms which involve changes of law, and from which we hope great results. Yet the uplift of the people cannot be done *en masse*. There is no complete panacea for social ills; the progress of the world must come by the progress of the men and women who make up the world. The best we can do by legislation is to remove unnecessary hindrances; to clear the way; to take off some of the shackles that restrain the human spirit. We cannot make people sober by acts of Congress. All we can do is to suppress and destroy some of the temptations to drunkenness and by prohibition, well enforced, make it difficult to get drunk instead of very easy.

I want to offer a few thoughts with regard to a form of social effort which, so far, has hardly received the attention it deserves.

For a hundred and fifty years America has been the land of opportunity for the oppressed and disinherited of the earth. We, or our fathers, have come here and found how good a place it is, how well freedom suits the human spirit, and after a hundred and fifty years there is still plenty of room for millions more. I have recently had occasion to travel over the Southeastern States, and I have been impressed by the advantages of the

climate, by the great natural opportunities, by the millions of acres untilled, by the millions only one-half or one-quarter tilled. The two Carolinas could easily absorb the whole population of New Jersey without crowding anybody. Florida and Mississippi each could feed as many more. Virginia has ample room for two or three additional millions. So has Georgia. Even in New Jersey, which is among the more densely populated States, we see plenty of land which only needs labor and skill and a little capital to make it productive and which can be bought for half as much per acre as a European farmer pays in annual rent.

No thoughtful, observant person who travels over America can believe that we are in danger of famine, caused by the pressure of population on the natural means of subsistence.

Yet, notwithstanding these opportunities, which are familiar to all, we are face to face with a very serious immigration problem, and, perhaps, it is as serious in New Jersey as in any other State. There are many advocates of severe restriction. The most recently suggested plan is to allow the annual admission of only a certain small percentage of the number already here and naturalized of the same race or language as the applicants. The idea is that a moderate number can be readily assimilated, while too many of one race, coming at once without friends and helpers of their own kind, cannot. Congestion is not necessarily too much of anything; it is often merely too much in one place. If the proposed percentage of admissions law were enacted, it would reduce the annual immigration of the Italians from 207,000 to 134,000; of the Greeks from 20,000 to 10,000; of those from Asia Minor from 10,000 to 5,000, and those from China and Japan to very small numbers. At the same time, it would allow of a very large increase from Northern Europe.

Now, great as has been the influx during the past few years, it has not been so large in proportion to the population as in several former periods. In 1854, for instance, the immigration amounted to sixteen per thousand of the resident population, while in 1905, the year when the record seemed to frighten most people, it was only thirteen per thousand.

Just one other fact, often forgotten, should be considered.

The immigration tables published, give the numbers received from foreign countries, but they do not often discriminate between those who have been back to their former country for a visit and those who come for the first time, and the number of those who return to their old homes to stay are often forgotten. Many thousand Italians and others come for a few months of the year, returning to Italy when work gets slack, because they can live so much more cheaply there that they save more than their steamship fare. The same year that saw the immigration of 1,100,000 also saw 350,000 return abroad.

So much to qualify the bare figures. Now, how is it with us in New Jersey? A recent census bulletin gives statistics of what the Bureau calls "foreign white stock," *i. e.*, the white people who are foreign born, or the children of foreign born. They are divided according to their mother tongue, not by so-called race lines. It is beyond question that New Jersey is rapidly becoming not a foreign State, but a State composed of foreigners. The figures are from the census of 1910. In the four years that have elapsed no doubt they have grown larger. The population of New Jersey in 1910 was 2,445,894, and only about one million were of those whom we sometimes call "native Americans." The foreign white stock numbered 1,435,985, or nearly 58 per cent. Of these nearly one-third were of those who do not have to learn a new language; they were English-speaking people from the British Isles, Canada and other colonies. That is about one-sixth of the whole population of the State. Those whose mother tongue was German numbered about 372,000, being rather more than one-fourth of the foreign white stock, or 15 per cent. of the total population. The total from Northern Europe, including English-speaking, German, Scandinavian, Dutch and French, numbered 924,758, that is, 37 per cent. of the whole population, or 64 per cent of the foreign white stock. From Eastern Europe there were about 280,000, that is, 19.5 per cent. of the foreign, or 11.4 per cent. of the total population. From Italy about 194,000, or 13.3 per cent. of the foreign, 8 per cent. of the population.

The foreign element is not evenly distributed over the State. The figures for Jersey City, Newark and Paterson show 71 per

cent., 72 per cent. and 77 per cent., respectively, of the population of those cities to be of what the census bureau calls "foreign white stock," *i. e.*, immigrants or the children of immigrants.

If immigration were the dreadful evil that some of the restrictionists fear, New Jersey would indeed be in a perilous condition. But when we remember that William Penn was an immigrant, that George Washington was the great-grandson of another, that the elder Damrosch was an immigrant, and his sons, Walter and Frank, to whom New York owes so great a musical debt, are counted among the foreign white stock in the census bureau; that all over the Union we can find men and women who were born in Europe, occupying places of honor and usefulness; when we think that the only *real* native Americans are the Indians, and that even *they* perhaps came, once upon a time, from some other land, we, who are immigrants, may take heart and not despair of the future of our adopted country because of our own presence here.

Is there any social duty towards the immigrant that rests strongly upon those of us who were here first or those who have been so completely assimilated that if it were not for an occasional inflection of speech that lingers on our tongue, or perhaps the dropping of one letter at the end of a word, or another at the beginning, we could not be distinguished from the children of those Americans who came over in the Mayflower to Massachusetts, or of the adventurers who came with Captain John Smith to Virginia. It seems to me there is a real opportunity of usefulness and some important duties.

The first is that of simple justice. We have made great progress at the ports of landing, and the strangers are not now victimized at Ellis Island, as once they were at the Battery. But it is only too true that the illiterate foreigner, ignorant of our language and customs, is very often at a great disadvantage. We no longer treat the Germans and Irish with contempt—there are too many of them. "Dutchy" and "Mick" are almost obsolete. I suppose the clause, "No Irish need apply," once quite common, has not been added to an advertisement for help for many years; but "Dago" and "Hunyak" and "Sheeny" are still common

enough. There is still a great deal of exploitation; the wrongs of the padrone system are by no means abolished, if they are somewhat abated. Too often the "Wop" is treated as hardly a man. The proportion of raw immigrants who suffer and die in the industrial warfare, which we call "Labor," is very great, and often comes from neglect to make sure that they understand the dangers that wait them and our safety devices which should shield them. I have a friend engaged in coal mining in Oklahoma. He asserts that at a certain mine, near his own, conducted by people of little experience and inadequate capital, during a term of years, one man was killed for each 1,200 tons of coal taken out. The coal was worth \$1 a ton at the mouth of the pit, so that if the mine were run by slave labor and slaves cost what they used to on the auction block at New Orleans, the total produce wouldn't have paid for the new slaves required. It goes without saying that the men killed were chiefly immigrants from southeastern Europe. The well-known case of the typhoid fever rate which rose and fell in Pittsburgh in proportion to the rise and fall of the prosperity of the steel business, because the laborers were chiefly ignorant foreigners, who could not read and did not heed the warnings which the city printed in the newspapers in English to "boil your drinking water," and so destroy typhoid germs, is another instance of what I mean.

The immigrants are here and are still coming. In some way we must find out how to fit them into our civil life; they must be taught how to be citizens; as we say, they must be assimilated. It is probably the greatest and most difficult task that was ever laid upon a democracy, but it is *our* task.

Some of us believe that the public school is the natural center of social life. Certainly it is the best hope for assimilation. People from northern and from southern Italy cannot understand each others dialects; they have little in common, except a great hope from America. But when their children meet in the common school, they are no longer Calabrians nor Sicilians. They are all Italians and soon become American. Here is what the United States Department of Education says about them:

"Immigrants are keenly interested in schooling for their chil-

dren, or at least conspicuously obedient to school attendance laws. The least illiterate of our population are the native-born children of foreign parents. The illiteracy among the children of native-born parents is three times as great as that among native-born children of foreign parents."

The bulletin goes on to say :

"Most of the immigrants of recent years have little kinship with the older stocks of our population, either in blood, language, methods of thought, traditions, manners or customs. They know little of our political and civil life, and are unused to our social ideals. * * * Strangers to each other, frequently from countries hostile to each other, they are thrown together in a strange country and are thought of by us only as a conglomerate mass of foreigners. They are crowded into factories, mines and dirty tenement quarters; too often the prey of the exploiter in business and the demagogue in politics. Immigrant education is not alone the question of a school education of children. The millions of adults and of children above the school attendance age, must be looked after. They must be prepared for American citizenship and for participation in our democratic, industrial, social and religious life. They must be given sympathetic help in finding themselves in their new environment and in adjusting themselves to their new opportunities and responsibilities. The proper education of these people is a duty which the nation owes to itself and to them. It can neglect this duty only to their hurt and its own penal."

If there is anything in the simile of the melting pot, and if we are to reap the full advantage that can come from the culture and the strength of the races that come to our shores, we must cultivate a franker and kinder recognition of them. Americans have been so busy subduing a continent and making a wilderness into a farm that they have had little time for art and still less for play. Many of our foreign friends bring with them artistic qualities which we greatly need, and too often we misuse them and waste fine, human ability, or even genius—treasures of inestimable value. Jane Addams once told me a story of an Italian friend of hers who came to a class at Hull House to learn

English. He was of a refined appearance and had rather delicate looking hands, which were bruised and bleeding from his work. He had been a year in Chicago, could find nothing but common labor, and was then working as a coal passer, not even a stoker. She found that he was an artist in silver, a sort of humble Benvenuto Cellini, and when he was found employment with a firm of manufacturing jewelers took high rank among their most artistic workmen. This is one instance of many that might be reported.

It is a revelation as to the possibilities of healthful, beautiful recreation for the common people to see the festivals of the Italians in New York or the Greeks in Chicago. We have much to learn from them in the matter of cheap and beautiful enjoyment.

To make these strangers into friends, to gain the advantage of their brawn and muscle, their artistic qualities, their perseverance and thrift, their gayety and good cheer, and give them in return the idea of citizenship, the love for that true freedom which is only found when we obey the laws ourselves have made; if we do all this, then we shall be the gainers. I think we can only do that if we first recognize that it is a great civic duty, and set ourselves with conscious effort to the task, and I believe that the first step is to recognize all that is valuable and beautiful which they bring with them and help them to conserve it. We must teach them to respect themselves, and teach their children to respect their parents and value the traditions of the land of their parents' birth. The immigrant will be no worse an American because he still loves his mother country, even though those who claim the lordship in that mother country may have been oppressors. When Carl Schurz was once twitted upon being a German and still loving Germany, although he was so great an American, soldier and citizen, he replied, "Do you suppose I shall love my wife any less because I also love my mother?"

Closing Remarks.

THE PRESIDENT—I think you will all agree that we have had a most interesting and inspiring Conference. There remains simply to declare the Conference adjourned, and to carry this spirit to our homes and to our hearts, and I do now declare this Conference adjourned.

SECTION MEETINGS.

Monday Morning, April 20th, 9:30-11:00.

PROBATION AND COURTS.—In the Section Meeting on "Probation and Courts," Mr. John J. Gascoyne, Chairman, pointed out that the probation system was started in New Jersey in April, 1900, a law having been passed in that year giving the requisite authority. The necessity for it was shown by the fact that many offenders when their sentence had been suspended would yield to temptation and lapse back into their old condition. The present system of probation is an attempt by society to find some means of reconciling the individual who by his error has put himself in conflict with the law and at odds with society, try to rehabilitate him as a member of society and at the same time satisfy the conscience of the community and the duty of the court, without the disadvantages and positive injuries that are associated with imprisonment.

Probation is neither a suspended sentence, nor a mechanical reporting as to the doings of the offender, nor is it a parole in the sense of a periodical report, but it a newer form of correction whereby the court through the probation officer tries to teach and direct the unfortunate one into better paths of actual living and a better understanding of his moral duties and relations to society.

The home life and environment play an important part in the rehabilitation of the offender. It is also necessary to study the previous record, if there is such, and also the heredity of the offender. While the court takes cognizance of the offence, it is of the utmost importance that the probation officer should not permit these events in the life of the wayward to occupy too much attention.

Mr. Gascoyne suggested that perhaps society in a measure is to blame for some of the crimes, quoting that "hard times always fills the prisons." If this be true it is necessary to attack the underlying causes under which the particular person lives, moves

and has his being. Under this environment one is more liable to become an offender, just as one living in a squalid environment is liable to contract tuberculosis.

In conclusion, Mr. Gascoyne pointed out that just as in medicine it was very important to have a correct diagnosis of the situation of each person under the care of the probation officer and to recognize that all offenders are not suitable for probationary treatment.

Mr. Walter W. Whitson, General Secretary of the Orange Bureau of Associated Charities spoke of the advantages to be gained through the co-operation of the probation officer and private charitable organizations. He pointed out that charity organization societies are not merely relief-giving agencies, but their primary function is to restore as far as possible to normal life and to build character. In this respect the probation officer and the Charity Organization Societies can work hand in hand. Co-operation to be most helpful must be personal, so the attendance of the probation officer at the Case Committee is very desirable, rather than to depend upon telephone messages and formal letters.

The Confidential Exchange is a form of co-operation which works well to prevent a duplication of effort. By united action it also makes it easier to rehabilitate offenders. To get co-operation it is often necessary to modify one's own plans, *i. e.*, to give and take. Mr. Whitson also pointed out that to get co-operation one must often put aside personality and accomplish the task through whatever agency can do it best.

Mr. Henry W. Thurston, of the New York School of Philanthropy, spoke of "Practical Methods of Dealing with Probationers." The first thing to find out is what are the real springs of action which move the probationer. The probation officer should ask and answer the following: 1. What kind of a body has he? What are its weaknesses, abilities, passions and appetites? 2. What kind of a mind has he? What kind of a pilot to his actions can be made of this mind? 3. Who are the companions of this probationer? What does he hate and what does he love? Who holds the secrets of his choices? 4. What ideas

of right and wrong does he really have, possibly unknown to himself?

The probation officer must put himself in the place of the probationer and ask himself under what conditions he would accept the advice of the probation officer and then seek to establish such condition of sympathy and confidence. The probation officer must also know the resources of the community, and work less by his own direct method of command and appeal than by the indirect persuasions and power of those persons and agencies that mean the most to the probationer. He must also give the probationer a good environment and keep him so busy with harmless and positively good actions that he will have no time or strength left for the bad. In the probationer's search for activity and growth to satisfy his desires, one must discover his tendencies and give them right direction, encouragement and opportunity. Mr. Thurston likened the work of the probation officer to that of the gardener who must prune and direct the shoots into good soil so that they may take root and bring forth fruit.

Prof. B. E. Merriam, School Director of the New Jersey Reformatory, spoke on the "Sentence and the Psychologist." He pointed out that the modern psychologist deals with the great active forces of the day. The church, the school, the reformatory, the workshop, the court room, in fact, the whole world, are laboratories in which to study the greatest of all living forces, the human brain. In the schools causes are being sought for retardation and the dropping out of school for work, and remedies are being applied. The churches are studied to find out why better results are not obtained. Hardly a prison or reformatory but has its psychologist who studies the motives for certain acts and how they may be changed.

The psychologist is in a position to advise through studying stimuli and responses, the right sentence for those who have gone wrong and whether the offender shall be punished or educated into a self-respecting citizen. There should be a psychologist in every court to make a careful, intensive study of the men and women, boys and girls, who have gone wrong to know what motives led to certain acts. In every county there should be a

retention place, not a jail, for every case, to find out the real cause of the deed. The hidden secrets of the mind which even the accused may not be aware of are invaluable to the judge in meting out justice. Also, it helps to know inherited weaknesses, physical defects, home training and environmental influences during the formative period. A hereditary chart and Binet tests may also help the judge to make a better decision.

If offenders were first sent to an industrial colony, and their character and needs carefully studied, the defense of insanity and mental irresponsibility would not be heard in court. Neither would feeble-minded persons be sent to penal institutions in which they are required to meet the standards set up for normal minds.

Ideals must be placed before the unfortunates. "The fact that men do not advance is the best possible evidence that they are contented where they are. Only that which is fine and high can feed human imagination aright. We become that which we look upon, contemplate and remember. Images of evil only help dimming and tarnishing the bright ideals of youth."

HEALTH PROBLEMS.—The Section Meeting on "Health Problems" consisted of a questionnaire on such topics as the following: (a) Will a State Commissioner of Health, and a reorganization of local boards give better results? (b) Is the enforcement of health matters a police duty? (c) What can be done with counties refusing to erect tuberculosis hospitals? (d) Should a city insist upon milk coming from tuberculin-tested cattle? (e) Proper employment for discharged patients. (f) Should a family of a consumptive who refuses hospital treatment be given relief? Health officers, tuberculosis secretaries, and Charity Organization Society workers took part in the discussion and, while there was no action taken, the sentiment seemed to be in the affirmative to all of the above questions.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY PROBLEMS.—In the Section Meeting on "Charity Organization Society Problems," Mr. A. W. MacDougall, Chairman, tried to show the place of the Charity Organization Society in community service and how far the

Charity Organization Society is responsible for working out the social and industrial reforms implied in its case problems. Miss Alice Jaynes, of the Consumers' League, and Miss G. L. Button, of the Monmouth County Branch of the State Charities Aid Association, spoke on Industrial Reform *versus* Relief. Mr. Walter W. Whitson, of the Orange Bureau of Associated Charities, spoke on the changing functions of the Charity Organization Society, and how leadership has been obtained through case work. Mr. Fred S. Hall, of the Charity Organization Society Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, spoke on the most efficient methods of building up financial support. He contrasted the letter appeal *versus* the personal appeal, and raised the question whether a collector can make a personal solicitation. He pointed out the responsibility of board members for personal appeals and indicated that voluntary service might be used to some extent.

Tuesday Morning, April 21st, 9:30-11:00.

Municipal Problems.

The topic for the morning was "Municipal Treatment of the Common Drunk," Mr. C. L. Stonaker acting as Chairman.

The discussion was opened by the Rev. Henry B. Wilson, of Boonton, Chairman of the Board of Protectors of the Town of Boonton. Mr. Wilson outlined the purposes of the law in New Jersey which permits the appointment of citizens on a committee to be known as a "Board of Protectors," which has for its purpose the preparing of a list of persons known to be habitual drunkards, and, after due warning, the law permits them to prosecute these men in the courts, as well as those who sell liquor to the persons on such a list. The full address has been printed in a separate pamphlet, which may be obtained by applying direct to Mr. Wilson.

An interesting experiment in the treatment of the habitual drunkard was outlined by Major Winchell, of the Salvation Army, in Jersey City. Last winter Major Winchell opened up

a place which he denominated a "cabaret," where he entertained the men with music, singing, dancing, athletic contests and a religious service. The purpose of this was to so entertain the men that they would prefer to come to his place rather than sit in a saloon. He furnished sandwiches and coffee, and found rooms for the homeless men. In forty nights there was an attendance of over five thousand men. Major Winchell briefly outlined his experiment last winter, and stated that next winter he would open up a number of these cafés in various parts of the city.

Judge William G. De Meza, of Plainfield, outlined his methods of treating the common drunk in the court by insisting upon the man taking the pledge, by personal warnings and official warnings to the saloonkeepers against serving liquor to the men who had thus signed the pledge. In this way the judge was unofficially maintaining a "jag list" of his own. The judge felt that there should be more probation work, and he was very much opposed to the placing of young boys in jail to associate with common drunkards.

Dr. Frank M. Mikels, of the State Hospital for the Insane at Morris Plains, expressed the need for psychopathic wards and hospitals. Quoting from the annual report of 1912, of the State Hospital at Morris Plains, he said that Dr. Evans emphasized the importance of establishing psychopathic clinical wards and hospitals in all the large cities in the State. "The full value of these institutions for the care and treatment of acute mental disease has already been acknowledged by the leading alienists of this country. Psychopathic hospitals and special clinics in connection with the general hospitals have already been established in Ann Arbor, Albany, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, New York and Boston. In these psychopathic institutions incipient cases of mental disease can be kept under observation until their exact condition is fully determined. Patients having symptoms of delirium caused by alcoholic intoxication or infection can receive efficient treatment for this transitory condition. In many cases they may be restored to health without the further trouble of commitment to a State hospital.

"After many years of close observation and analysis of the

cases that have been committed to the hospital at Morris Plains, it has been determined that a large percentage of the insanity is due directly to alcoholic intoxication, and a much larger number of cases show evidence of alcohol as one of the causative factors.

"In considering the problem which presents itself in trying to give proper care and attention to the common drunkard, it is necessary to ascertain the fundamental causes of his trouble. A thorough and careful analysis of each case may reveal a physical disorder or mental defect that has played a very prominent part in the development of this condition. When a man has become so depraved in his craving for alcoholic beverages that he cannot resist the impulse to satiate the morbid desire for drink, and cannot under such conditions regulate his personal habits without becoming a menace to society, his family, and himself, it is time to give that individual more than ordinary consideration. After it has been found that punitive measures have failed to prevent his frequent intoxication, he should be given the benefit of a clinical examination in an institution properly equipped to take care of individuals who are so unfortunately afflicted. Very frequently, excessive alcoholic indulgence can be traced to a mental defect or well-defined condition of insanity which has existed for years without detection, and has been the real cause of the common drunkard's excessive indulgence.

"The fact that some people can tolerate more alcoholics than others may be accounted for because of their peculiar constitutional condition, but this should not be accepted as a criterion for indiscriminate indulgence by other people.

"The economic and hygienic importance of these psychopathic hospitals should interest all public welfare-workers. The facilities of these institutions can be used to solve the municipal problem of taking care of the common drunkard.

"Too often a person having an alcoholic psychosis is classified as a common drunkard. When an abnormal mental condition is found to be the cause of his drunkenness, the indigent citizen should be afforded an equal opportunity with the rich to receive the benefit of hospital treatment."

CHILD WELFARE PROBLEMS—In the Section Meeting on "Child Welfare Problems," Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Chairman, gave the following questionnaire for informal discussion: (a) What are the problems in placing out children? (b) Is it time for State supervision of all child-caring agencies? (c) What is to become of dependent and neglected children where there is no children's society? (d) Should the laws about children be codified?

Dr. William H. Slingerland, Special Agent Department of Child Hygiene Russell Sage Foundation, rounded up the discussion showing that New Jersey had a splendid opportunity to do a wonderful work on behalf of their poor and dependent children.

Committee on Resolutions, New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

The Committee on Resolutions begs leave to report as follows:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee provide one or more standing committees to make formal report at the next Conference upon the subjects of Mental Hygiene and Psychopathic Clinics, Custodial Care and Treatment of Inebriety, and other subjects that have in recent years been discussed at our meetings, to the end that a present summary of the best thought on these subjects may be laid before us in something like orderly sequences.

Resolved, That we extend our gratitude to all the local agencies that have done so much for our personal comfort and for the making of one of the best annual conferences in the history of the organization, and especially the Mayor of Asbury Park, the Beach Commission, the various local committees, the ladies of Long Branch and Red Bank who served daily luncheons for the out-of-town delegates, and to the Monmouth County Branch of the State Charities Aid Association, and its energetic and charming president, Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson, aided and abetted by its zealous secretary, Miss G. L. Button.

Respectfully submitted,

SEYMOUR L. CROMWELL,
MRS. F. C. JACOBSON,
JOSEPH P. BYERS,

Committee.

Report of Committee on Nominations.

MRS. SIDNEY M. COLGATE, *Chairman*,
 MRS. C. B. ALEXANDER,
 REV. AUGUSTINE ELMENDORF,
 MR. A. W. MACDOUGALL,
 PROF. E. R. JOHNSTONE.

(See page 13 for Officers, Executive Committee and Advisory Board of 1915 Conference.)

1915 Conference, New Brunswick, April —, 1915.

Treasurer's Report.

July 1, 1914.

RECEIPTS.

Balance brought forward,	\$1,093 37
Received from 338 subscribers,	1,591 75
Interest on bank balances,	21 53
	<hr/>
	\$2,706 65

DISBURSEMENTS.

Expenses of Conference,	\$1,553 11
Balance in bank,	1,153 54
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	\$2,706 65

ISAAC C. OGDEN,
Treasurer.

Examined and found correct.

(Signed) FRANK MOORE,
 HENRY L. DEFORD,
 HARRY E. FOSDICK,
Auditing Committee.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING
NEW BRUNSWICK

APRIL 25th, 26th, 27th, 1915

**The Conference Maintains An Open Forum for the Discussion of Advanced
Ideas and Suggestive Steps. It Does Not, However, Commit Itself
to Any Definite Policy or Formulate Any Platform.**

TRENTON, N. J.
MACCRELLISH & QUIGLEY CO., PRINTERS

1915.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

By Invitation of the Mayor, the Board of Trade
and the Philanthropic Organizations
of New Brunswick

OPERA HOUSE
GYMNASIUM
SECOND REFORMED CHURCH
NEW BRUNSWICK

APRIL 25th, 26th, 27th, 1915

TRENTON, N. J.
MACCRELLISH & QUIGLEY CO., PRINTERS

1915.

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PREFACE.

This is the first time in the history of the Conference that the question of financing our State institutions has been considered as a part of our charity problems. The President, in his opening address, did not mince his words about the futility of trying to run institutions and get results without adequate funds.

The present method of deriving funds for State institutions solely from corporation taxes is too inflexible. It does not take into consideration either the needs of the State or its growth.

Public sentiment is demanding more adequate care of the tuberculous, insane and epileptic, as well as the defective, delinquent and pauper classes. Whether this is to be accomplished through a State tax and bonding the State or by shifting the responsibility to the counties and municipalities is a mooted question.

It is to be regretted that the wish of the program committee to have experts in the field of finance to show the way out was not fulfilled.

E. D. E.

Organization of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, 1914-1915.

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Vice-President, DAVID F. WEEKS, Skillman
Secretary, ERNEST D. EASTON, 45 Clinton St., Newark
Treasurer, ISAAC C. OGDEN, Orange

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Next Conference, Hoboken, May, 1916.

Sociological Exhibits.

In connection with the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

Arranged and Prepared by the Local Committee on Exhibits.

The exhibit was on view in the gallery of the Second Reformed Church and open daily from 9 A. M. It consisted of a demonstration of the resources, functions, activities and needs of the different State institutions, as well as some local exhibits.

Demonstrators were present to explain the charts and the work of the different State commissions.

OPENING MEETING.

Sunday, April 25th, 1915, 3:30 P. M.

General Topic: "The State's Needs and Resources "

"Where Public Charity Ends."

"Where Private Charity Begins."

INVOCATION.

REV. WILLIAM W. KNOX, NEW BRUNSWICK.

Our Heavenly Father, God over all, blessed forever. We thank Thee that Thy delights are in the children of men, and we thank Thee to-day that Thou hast caused this sun to shine on the just and on the unjust. We thank Thee that we share with Thee responsibility for our fellow-men, for Thou hast said we are our brothers' keepers. We thank Thee for the occasion which brings us together. We thank Thee most heartily for the auspicious circumstances under which we meet. We thank Thee for the fourteen years of service in which those who are identified with public and private charities have gathered, not only for counsel, but for carrying out the conclusions reached. And we pray Thee that at this Conference not only there may be wisdom from above to guide us in our deliberations, but there may be the holy consecration of ourselves to Thy service.

We thank Thee, Gracious God, that as the Good Samaritan it is our privilege to serve in the steps of the Lord Jesus Christ; and we do pray that we may not only have that readiness to serve and the willingness to make sacrifice, but that we may put personal interest in all we say and do.

And now give us wisdom in our counsel; bring to a happy conclusion this convention, and we pray Thee that the best results may follow; and grant that in the multiplied institutions of our State and in the many charities of our various communities, the spirit of the Dear Master, who was a man of sorrows

and one acquainted with grief, may prevail, and that in imitation of Him, souls are moved like Christ to lay aside their glory and humble themselves, though rich they become poor; making a sacrifice of what they are as well as what they have, and so bring a blessing to mankind.

Help us, as Thou hast said, "Blessed is he that considereth the poor," not only to consider the conditions of poverty and the causes of poverty, but help us, we pray Thee, considering ourselves and our own heart needs, to go to the deeper depths of society, bringing Christian relief and the gospel of relief for all mankind.

We pray Thee hear us in these our petitions; guide us in our deliberations thus begun this afternoon, blessing each speaker, blessings each one who hears; and may we not only be hearers of the word and the message that comes to us, but may we be doers of the word. We ask through riches of grace in Christ Jesus. Amen.

Greetings from Rutgers.

LOUIS BEVIER, PH.D.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: I am sorry that President Demarest could not say the word of welcome that he had intended to say. It falls to my lot, therefore, to say it as well as I can on brief notice. The task is a pleasant one; it is certainly a very brief one; it needs but few words on my part.

The significance of a great movement in society such as this we all realize as very great; a movement to put on a sounder basis what might be called the therapeutics of society, something that has gone beyond the initial stage. At first it was to remedy isolated ills; it was to cure, if possible, the individual disease; it was to help, perhaps, some unfortunate individual. It has gone further than that, much further, in the study of how prevention shall take the place of cure; and how a great body of social prophylactic shall be built up to heal the ills of society rather by preventing them than by curing them after they have come.

Now the college cannot hold aloof from such movements. For the college is really the place where the leaders of society are to be drawn. If it is really the place where learning is to be fostered and disseminated; if it is really and honestly in search of truth, then all its resources are certainly at the disposal of a great movement like this. The college is pledged to put all its energy into the co-operation of the great work of societies like this. The colleges all over the United States, the colleges and universities, have shown how alive they are to the significance of great movements like this, because in the expansion of the curriculum in the last few years no one great development has perhaps been quite so significant, quite so obvious, quite so overshadowing, as the great enlargement of all the courses that have to do with society, with social life, with all the various things that we need under the general title of sociology.

Now we want light, we want knowledge; we want the best light and the most scientific knowledge. What more fitting place can there be from which to draw the leaders of a great movement like this than from the colleges and universities of the land? It is a mighty work, it is a glorious hope that we have before us. Nothing less than, perchance more, but a rejuvenation of society; that the floods shall flow more healthily in all the veins of social life; when disease may perchance be prevented in large measure and when sound social life shall triumph over all those various diseases that have found opportunity for so large development. The college welcomes this association to New Brunswick; the college pledges its co-operation; the college opens its doors; the college desires to see, and prays to see, the consummation of the great work and the glorious hope. (Applause.)

Response to Words of Welcome.

PRESIDENT CROMWELL—Dr. Bevier, the Conference is extremely grateful for your words. 'You seem to have said all the things that have been on our minds for years. You seem to have grasped absolutely the reason for our coming to New

Brunswick. Unless we can get the help of those young men who are coming out of college we are wasting much time and much opportunity. Those of us who have been to many of these Conférences during the past ten years realize how much inspiration can be gotten from such words as those we have just heard. I feel that there should be inspiration in coming to New Brunswick and coming to Rutgers, because any college that holds out its arms or will hold out its arms to the new woman's college and lend it not only the spirit and helpfulness, but even go to the extent of giving it the use of its resources, must have gotten to a point of acknowledging the necessity for upholding the hands of all those who are trying to extend and broaden education.

We expect to get many recruits here at Rutgers, because it is in a place of learning like this that we must get the people who in later years are going to be the trustees of the State's business. I thank you. (Applause.)

"The State's Needs and Resources."

BY SEYMOUR L. CROMWELL, PRESIDENT NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE
OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, 1915.

In the present condition of turmoil, both social and political, in other parts of the world, it is difficult to concentrate our attention on the problems set before us in our own State. With hundreds of thousands dying and millions starving; with women and children, who have lost all, crying for immediate and practical help, generalization on social service topics may appear inadequate to the situation, as something that may be put off until a happier time. A remarkable indictment of the war was recently issued after a meeting of the Henry Street Settlement in New York City under the title "The World's Throw-Back by War," which sounds a ringing challenge to us to attack the situation in a high-minded and frank and prompt manner. We who still have the freedom to act for the advancement of the race must use that freedom. We must act so that the happiness at this time of our own State shall serve as an example to other

States and other people. The power of example is infinite, and by striving to construct a comprehensive scheme of life here we shall help in the great task of the future—the rehabilitation of all the society that is being so torn by this great war. If we forego constructive work, we who are so fortunately at peace, we shall have failed in our duty. That civilization has receded elsewhere can give us no excuse. Mr. Galsworthy has recently said: “There is only one national aspiration worthy the name: to have from roof to basement a clean, happy national home.” This very moment, then, when the world’s economy is being threatened abroad, is the time above all when we must resist being engulfed by the tide of passion that seems to be overwhelming other great nations, their people and their homes. Our present responsibility is supreme. What we do here is to be of use in laying the foundation for the future progress of the human race. Hence our deliberations in this Conference have peculiar interest at this time and cannot be neglected, for there can be no happier time until these questions that concern our own State are settled. Through such a conference as this, through reports of commissioners and State officials, through the activities of the State Charities Aid Association, through religious, educational and philanthropic organizations, through books and magazines and the press, through general interest in social questions properly fostered, we can awaken, stimulate and strengthen a social conscience that will insist on a deep and honest consideration of the duties and obligations of our State to those who are dependent upon its care.

In a great country the people must climb with evenness; the advance must be horizontal. To prevent dragging back by the unfit we must help the unfit. Our struggle for existence must be the struggle for the existence of others, just as the prosperity of the greatest State presupposes the prosperity of all other States. Those who can best help in the solution of our increasing problems must be our educated young people, and this makes the holding of this Conference in New Brunswick of particular appropriateness. They go out from our educational institutions with an ambition to give what they have obtained from the com-

mon good, and they can foster in the communities into which they go a higher social and political life.

The average American citizen knows but little of the details of public affairs, whether they be municipal, county or State. If one happens to be appointed on a board of education he may learn to know something about educational problems, but he is likely not to know much about the province of the local board of health or a State training school for juvenile delinquents. His interest is in the school and he is apt to neglect the relationship between the boy who plays truant and the county juvenile court. There is at present too little acquaintanceship and practically no affiliation between the township trustees, common councils, boards of chosen freeholders, on the one hand, and, on the other those who are interested from a charitable standpoint or official viewpoint in the schools, settlements, libraries, hospitals, jails, etc. Let me suggest that you invite the county judge to dine with you and you will find an evening of discussion with that experienced official on the problems that come before his court an evening well spent. Suppose you talk with a member of the board of chosen freeholders. You will be surprised in discovering how little you know about your county affairs. Even the policeman on the beat is a fund of information, and when you once know him as a friend he will surprise you by his knowledge and interest in the well-being of those whose troubles come to his attention in one way or another. Do you know that to-day the New York police, at the instigation of Commissioner Woods, are managing in an intelligent and practical way a second-hand clothing store for the poor and are in active co-operation with the New York Diet Kitchen Association? Our settlement workers find the New York police their best allies and warm supporters. When they close a street down on the East Side in the summer time as a playground for the children, the police are the most interested spectators. In short, the theory of general well-being is identical with humanity. Justice in the State and the perfection of human existence cannot be separated.

Public sentiment to-day demands that welfare be made a common cause. Organization is essential to excellence. It requires

that we shall not only create social conditions and see to it that all men are similarly protected to their best advantage, but that we shall maintain these conditions by a well-developed system of organized effort.

We must not be disconcerted by the difficulties in our way. Because we have neglected our duties as citizens in the past, with the result that public affairs seem so hopelessly confused, we must not draw back and say that nothing can be done or that the situation is too overwhelming. We must not keep silent and accept the unfortunate consequences of our apathy. We have the successful experience of other States and the authority of intelligent men to point the way. We have by halting steps advanced in the direction of a solution of this or that individual State problem. Why, then, have we failed to develop a general policy that will make for permanent and lasting progress? In the Roman system it was a responsible autocrat whose edict made law and who forced his law upon the people. Our laws of the present day are differently evolved. We speak of our present-day legislators as being irresponsible and unrepresentative individuals, whose product makes for lawlessness rather than social order. It is for this reason that we have eagerly grasped at the idea of commission form of government for our cities, and we may some day as eagerly grasp at the idea of a commission form of county government, or even of State government. Can we not conceive of a board or commission broad enough in its powers and with ability sufficient to cope with our present-day situation? What we obviously need in our complicated life is an organization in which responsibility can be fixed. In order to accomplish this, power must go with responsibility. Perhaps we do need some body of men with autocratic power, unhampered by the technicalities of various and involved legislation, with ability, will and determination to do things and totally unafraid of that dread event, the next election, with its possible change of political control, which means the giving up of work half done.

We spend much time in trying to fix responsibility for minor mistakes in the management of our institutions, when the truth

is that our whole system needs reconstruction. The saving in minor economies that may come from careful management, essential as it may be, will not build a new hospital for the insane, nor a home for our feeble-minded men, nor a new prison. Our State financial system is no system at all; it is a growth and a development without system. Just now they are talking of a State bond issue; that is better than our present method, but it only befogs and delays the real issue. We must have larger State revenues, and the inevitable points to a State tax. There is no other way out. We all know that the State's present resources are not sufficient to meet the drains upon them, and we all of us only too well know of the present clamor for retrenchment in expenditures, when the fact remains that the legitimate demand of a State growing in population and wealth requires a constantly increasing budget. The time has come when the public men of New Jersey must speak openly and boldly on the subject of State taxes. More money, not less, will be needed as time goes on. An intelligent business man makes provision as his particular business grows in importance. Why should not a State develop its affairs in a like manner? We are told that the State Constitution of 1844 forbids this or that thing. It was a very different world in the year 1844. Our State has grown, and in the year 1915 it is reasonable to suppose that the State Constitution does not fit present-day conditions.

We want modern systems of management and control and men of ability and determination to carry out a consistent and logical program. Would the execution of our prison labor laws have been halted and delayed for four years had some central authority existed with power to carry out a definite program? It is idle to seek for reasons for failure when a plan has not been developed to a point where success or failure can be demonstrated. It is intended to organize a big business enterprise in the prisons, yet no working capital has been furnished by the State. Not only does the Legislature fail to provide the money to underwrite the enterprise, but it permits a law to stand whereby the proceeds of sales cannot be put back into the busi-

ness for its further development. What progress can we expect when we choke a new enterprise before it begins to breathe?

So many things seem impossible. We make them so by approaching our problems with something less than real honesty of purpose and with certain mental reservations. Of course, our attempts at giving more freedom to prisoners have met with limited success. We have not played fair with them. There can be no honor system when there are guards with shotguns in their hands and pistols in their pockets. We investigate conditions in our prison for the ostensible purpose of improving the mental, moral and physical condition of the inmates, yet all the time we know in our hearts that the surroundings are little short of debasing. Of what use to try to cure tuberculosis at State expense in one place and breed the disease in our old prison? There is but one way to help the prisoners to rehabilitate themselves and thus directly to save the State's money, and that is to acknowledge that there is no such thing as a criminal type. This means that we must alter the whole sequence of treatment of those charged with crime from arrest and trial and fixed codes of punishment to the treatment after conviction. It is not through fines or days in jail or years in prison that a cure can be effected, for these belong to the days of repression, before we realized that the object of penal institutions should be to reform.

No one believes that prisons as at present constituted can reform. The reason that men find it hard to get a job after a prison term is because employers know the influence of prison life—not because of the crime committed. We must get the hospital idea into our penal code just as years ago we got the hospital idea into the treatment of the insane. And having the new system, then we want a man—a big man with a vision and with a board of earnest and capable citizens behind him—to push forward in no uncertain way, for the work to be done is pioneer work, and it needs men of heroic mold, who are not afraid to venture into the unknown. But in prison reform so many things have happened recently in other States that we need not be afraid of the venture.

There is no doubt as to our inhumanity. In the past it has been unwitting, but if we do not change, our cruelty will be deliberate, with eyes open. Let us get at the whole truth about all our institutions. Our prison at Trenton was constructed in a past age and it is not fit for human beings. It should be torn down and abandoned, and a new prison of different type should be erected in another place, where the modern hospital treatment of the unsocial man may be given in some logical way. Our insane hospitals are so overcrowded as to be almost beyond the possibility of decent hospital management. We can only congratulate and express our admiration for our loyal public servants who are conducting these two institutions in the light of present difficulties. What seemed unbearable congestion three or four years ago has grown worse, and yet worse. We must get the surplus of drug-users, habitual drunkards and incurable demented out of those hospitals so that the real hospital work may be unhampered and a greater percentage of cures obtained. That means more land and more simple cottages, where the latent activities of these classes may be given employment. We have passed the age of locking up and forgetting these dependents. We must give them freedom and occupational activities and give Nature a chance. We have no place in this State to house a male idiot or a low-grade, feeble-minded man, excepting when Professor Johnstone takes such cases into his private institution at Vineland. He and his staff of workers through private initiative have been demonstrating for us what can be done to utilize this waste human product, and at his own colony at Menantico and at the Burlington County Colony, which has been started and developed by the citizens of that county, we have had conclusive demonstration of what can be done toward working out a system for this class of dependents. Yet the State makes no effort to appropriate the lesson and seems to lack authority or initiative to do anything concrete in the matter.

Waste human product fills our insane hospitals and able-bodied men fill our prisons and jails. Thousands of acres of waste land lie untilld in our State. When shall we turn this waste human product and this waste land to use? People go

into our institutions, and come out and go in again, and who can claim any improvement in any of the classes that it is not only an obligation but a common-sense proposition for us to help and make better. I am disposed to believe that almost every evil tendency of man, physical, mental or moral, can be modified or wholly eliminated if mind and hand can be kept busy. Arbitrary treatment and discipline must cease everywhere. Men cannot be molded to your will or mine and retain that individuality which is theirs by divine right. Hope is what we should seek for all who come under our care, and if we do not give them hope we cannot give them back their manhood.

The most elementary philosophy teaches that only the busy person can be happy and that regular, useful work is man's dearest blessing.

As to employment, I venture to say that we are all of one mind that "sweating" is wrong. We believe that there is economy in high wages; that it is saner and less costly to take care of industrial incompetents than to have them compete with the great mass of able-bodied workers. The sick and mentally defective must be cared for by the strong, which is the State, and children must be kept out of the labor market! Some of you know how the child labor problem was finally settled in New Jersey. After pioneer efforts of individuals here and there, after some organized effort and some years of futile legislation a law was finally drafted last year so complete and yet so simple that almost before the day it became effective the whole State, as if by one accord, obeyed the new law, and no child under fourteen is to-day employed in any factory and the labor of children for gain is no longer exploited in this State. A long-time member of this Conference, Mr. Robert L. Flemming, of Jersey City, should receive public recognition for the valuable part he took in the drafting of this child-saving law of last year.

I will not touch upon the problem of woman in industry. The change of the housewife to the woman worker in the factories and shops is not fully understood as yet, but it must be met on a broad and fearless plane. So far as regulating tasks, hours of labor, hygiene and sanitation of places where they work,

we can by legislation and by giving them the vote improve their surroundings. We cannot, however, say, as we do with the child, that they shall not work at all. But we must surely come to a more logical consideration of the terms upon which women must work. Surely here, where woman's dearest rights and privileges are threatened, where their children's future is at stake, they must help us decide on the righteous course.

Is it through fear of being charged with sensationalism, through fear of being accused of being over-sentimental, that we have been so slow to support and indorse child labor legislation? This issue of child labor and woman in industry cannot be approached dispassionately. We must fight sentimentally or sensationally—or in any other way that may be effective—in the interest of child welfare, for that means the development of a better social group by and by. Unless people can be actually made to feel the horror of neglect, abandonment and cruelty toward children they will not rouse themselves. Be sensational, be sentimental, throw away your Shavian philosophy and fight this fight. Again, we are indebted to Mr. Flemming for having put upon our statute books this year the new law relating to child welfare, which is the concrete expression of what these State conferences have been leading up to for some years last past.

Is not the time now fully come when we in these Conferences must plan a follow-up campaign and continue the enthusiasm aroused here, so that actual accomplishment shall follow our Conference meetings? Should we not provide for one or more standing committees to take up some of the subjects developed at this Conference and bring into concrete form by a well-prepared report next year definite plans for meeting some of our social obligations? In conclusion, let us classify some of these obligations:

1. Protect society for its future good by stopping all child labor for mercenary and selfish gain.
2. Check truancy in the schools by making the schools so attractive and serviceable that children will be interested in striving for an education.

3. Reduce the number of unemployed by developing industrial vocational training.

4. Foster mental and moral rehabilitation among those who have committed so-called crimes by letting light and air, and, above all, hope into their lives.

5. Extend the purposes of our present indeterminate sentence law by an honest treatment of the man on parole and by giving him a chance to prove that he can "come back."

6. Take an interest in and see that every county in this State advances the work of the County Probation office, with good men on the job and a county judge behind them having the citizenship of the county behind the judge.

7. Tear down our old prison at Trenton and start anew on a different basis.

8. Do away with the unspeakable crowding of our insane in hospitals and develop industrial farms for custodial cases.

9. Develop the colony care for feeble-minded men and eventually one for feeble-minded women, where their lives may be made happy and contented in useful industries.

10. Develop follow-up work, after-care, social service in connection with hospitals and so prevent the expense incurred by the return of so many who should have been cured.

11. Look to your responsibility for the decent and humane care of the human driftwood which by age and disease finds lodging in our almshouses. Make these homes worthy of our time and our State.

12. Banish the medieval jail and develop county colonies where those who will not work may be encouraged to work.

13. Look yourself in the face and meet the issue of a necessary State tax and see that it is wisely administered.

Without social duty and a social conscience there can be no individual moral life, and this Conference has but one fundamental reason for existence—that it seeks to speak and to hear the truth.

"The Conservation of Human Resources."

JOHN GRIER HIBBEN, PRESIDENT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

I remember, with great pleasure, the meeting of the Society of Charities and Correction, in Princeton, two years ago, and the very deep impression that your gathering made upon our community and upon the young men who were then students at our institution. And I congratulate the people of New Brunswick, and particularly the members of Rutgers College, that you have this convention meeting here at this time. I feel that it is a great privilege that you have allowed me to speak to you at the opening session. I have taken as a subject "The Conservation of Human Resources." To you who are working in the State of New Jersey it is an old subject, and I doubt if I am able to suggest anything new to you. But I have had it in mind that I might express for myself, and I believe for the thoughtful citizens of New Jersey, our deep appreciation of the work that you are doing for the State, and I do not know how to express this better than to put it in the form of an effort on your part to conserve these human resources of the State.

Among the characteristic features of the remarkable progress which our country has made during the last generation, perhaps the most conspicuous and significant has been the effort to conserve our natural resources and to prevent the loss of waste material. Not only the products of industry, but the by-products as well have proved of enormous value and importance. The test of any manufacturing plant to-day is the manner in which it deals with its waste material. The formula of economy in all production is that whatever is potential in the raw material must be realized at full value in the actual product. This equation that the actual must be made equal to the potential is never literally true, but the difference between the two members of this equation should be a negligible quantity. If there is a significant loss of the original metal in every ton of ore which is handled something is wrong and the problem of saving this loss becomes acute.

In a similar manner the machinery of society, day by day, is

grinding out its various products, but with what a pitiful waste. It is true that the raw material presents various degrees of potential value; nevertheless, there are abundant possibilities which are never realized and there is a conspicuous waste which becomes not only a loss but a menace to society. A significant test of the enlightenment of a State, as well as its efficiency in dealing with the problems of government, is its ability to deal wisely and successfully with those human elements which may be so transformed as to prove the heart of good in things evil.

This Society of Charities and Correction of New Jersey, whose members I have the honor to address upon this occasion, is endeavoring to solve a problem somewhat similar and yet quite different from that which is presented to the university. We who teach in schools of higher education have placed in our hands select material to mold and fashion into the finished product as we may; you, however, must deal with what seems to be the waste material of society. I wish you to feel, however, that we have with you all the sympathy of fellow-craftsmen. While the material may be different the end is the same—the development of human beings in such a fashion that they may become useful members of society, and that the image of God in man may not be degraded, but glorified. Yours is an adventurous enterprise because of its crowding difficulties and discouragements. You must come to your tasks and face your problems with brave, unconquerable spirits; otherwise you would soon become disheartened by the odds against you. Although you are fighting against the powers of darkness, there is many a ray of light which leads to the day.

In order to transform the material with which you are dealing into valuable products, it is not sufficient that you should furnish for the poor and degraded elements of society a cleaner, brighter and more sanitary environment; but the spirit of these unfortunate beings must be touched and healed and invigorated by your influence and effort. I do not mean by this to minimize in any sense the importance of your work to provide better surroundings in congested districts of our cities, in rural communities, or throughout our State institutions. While it is necessary to pro-

vide a decent and wholesome environment, this is only a preliminary stage in the process of conserving the source of society. I would, therefore, at this time endeavor particularly to draw attention to those influences, psychological, moral and spiritual which have most direct bearing upon the process of redeeming human life.

By the interest which you have manifested in the lives and fate of your brother men you have created the impression throughout our State institutions that the correcting power of the State is friendly and not hostile to the individual; that it is not merely punitive, but educational and remedial as well. Instead of the impersonal nature of law you have substituted the element of personal concern and sympathy for the unfortunate, dependent and criminal classes. You have thus dissipated the atmosphere of suspicion in the mind of the one who is drawn into an intimate relation with the correcting power of the State. The human beings whom the State has under its care and control are apt to feel instinctively that this care and control is merely official, and, therefore, perfunctory, and that they are in the midst of a machine which, indeed, is without a soul. Your Society bears the name of the Society of Charities and Correction. These terms have become familiar words to you, and interpreted in such a technical manner as to lose at times the deeper significance of their original meaning. Charity is not merely the dispensing of alms; it is not food, nor clothes, nor care of the body; it is love. Correction does not mean rebuke merely, nor punishment, nor the crushing or souring of the spirit; it means redemption.

The motive of your labors is love; the end is to redeem that which is lost, to save for some good and useful purpose the waste material of human lives and human happiness. The supreme invigorating power of the world is love, and wherever the degraded, the outcast, the one who feels that he has never had a chance in life, becomes conscious that one of his own kind is interested in him and is concerned for his welfare there will be found the germ of a new life.

It is the atmosphere of kindly consideration that the unfortu-

nate or the erring may experience an awakening of hope. It is the hopelessness of life which either paralyzes effort or directs effort along lawless lines. The courage which a man needs whose heart has been taken out of him must be given him from without. It must be imparted to him by the hopeful spirits, such as yours, which are capable of making courage contagious. In your interest and sympathy he sees the possibility for the first time of a chance in life, and he is eager to avail himself of this new opportunity. Out of this eagerness hope is born, and he rejoices in a new heaven and a new earth.

Whoever indulges himself in a philosophy of cynical pessimism as regards the labors of social service, I would point such a one to the body of men and women who form the membership of your Society as the concrete argument of optimism to refute his scornful criticism. That you, who know far better than anyone else, the difficulties and discouragements of your mission, still maintain the spirit of hope and expectation concerning the redemptive possibility of fallen humanity, this is a significant fact of actual experience which must be reckoned with by all who would see only the darkness of despair enveloping the life of mankind.

Moreover, you have shown a profound understanding of the peculiar psychology of the man who has broken faith with his fellows. Such a man is universally distrusted. He lives in an atmosphere of suspicion. He knows that even his most righteous endeavor would be regarded as having some ulterior motive of dishonesty. What incentive is there for him to be decent and do that which is right and fair? Our reform and penal institutions in the past have done nothing to restore his self-respect. But a new discovery has been made of an old eternal truth, namely, that the consciousness that someone believes in him, tends to create in a man the desire to prove himself worthy of that trust. You quicken a sense of honor by appealing to it. You assume its presence and thereby call it into being. A man's honor is never wholly lost. At the barest suggestion that he still possesses some sense of honor a thrill of new life runs through his whole being. With honor aroused, manhood re-

turns. But it may be urged, is it safe to trust a man who has shown himself untrustworthy or to put one upon his honor who in every way and on every occasion has acted dishonestly? You may say, "I will not trust anyone until he has proved himself worthy of my trust." If you insist upon this complacent policy, it is because you have viewed human nature superficially, and have failed to acquire that deeper insight which reveals the strange truth that the very fact itself of trusting a man may serve to transform dishonesty into honesty and dishonor into honor. This is not a quixotic method; it has been tested by experience. The members of this Society have tested it, and could recount innumerable instances in support of it. It is the program of a bold procedure. The overcautious and overprudent, the naturally suspicious may protest against its seeming folly, but it has the pragmatic sanction that it works; its success is the proof of its wisdom.

This, then, is the significance of your labors, that you are bringing love, hope and a new birth of honor to the lives of those who in a peculiar sense are wards of the State. You have appreciated the necessity and the opportunity of this splendid work of charity and correction, of love and of redemption. You have been inspired by a passion for humanity. It would, indeed, be a pitiful outcome of our modern civilization if while we have succeeded in perfecting the art of refining gold, we have failed to devise any process of purifying character. Shall we emphasize the necessity of preserving our streams and forests, of husbanding the treasures of our mines, of protecting the lives of our animals, and yet make no effort to stay the doom resting upon the children of darkness and of death? The men, women and children who share our common life, and who are brethren of a common destiny, shall they fall by the way because of our failure to hear their call of distress or our willingness to obey the divine law of sacrifice? It was Nietzsche who scornfully characterized Christianity as the religion of the hospital. I am willing to accept this characterization and to glory in it. Christianity is, indeed, the religion of the hospital, the religion of every similar institution, public or private, whose office it is to

bring healing and strength and a new life to mankind. The most significant attribute of Christ's nature is that He had "compassion on the multitude." This is the underlying motive of your labors, that you also have compassion on the multitude.

In seeking to ameliorate the condition of the unfortunate, the undisciplined and the unfit, you are serving the well being of your State, and through the welfare of your State that of the nation at large. To save the waste material of humanity, to transform the lowest and most degraded elements of society into honorable and useful citizens, to protect future generations from an inheritance of disease and death, this is the highest patriotism. The cause which you follow creates heroic service. The cross of honor is awarded to him on the field of battle who saves a comrade from the fire of the enemy. What honor shall there be for the one who saves a soul from sin, from degradation and misery, who raises the unfortunate who has fallen and places him upon his feet so that he can look his fellow men in the face, and can lift his eyes in aspiration unto his God! He who qualifies in such a service, although he may wear no visible decoration, is, nevertheless, glorified by the invisible sign of the cross, the symbol both of sacrifice and of honor. (Applause.)

Benediction.

REV. F. S. SCHENCK, D.D.

May the God of all justice and mercy, and all righteousness and grace, and all truth and love, the God of love and redemption, bless this Association of Charities and Correction, so that we may all grow in His fellowship, thinking His thoughts, feeling His feelings, choosing His choice, doing His work to the glory of His name and for the welfare of humanity. Amen.

Sunday Evening, April 25th, 1915, 7:30 P. M.

NOTES FROM CONFERENCE SERMON AT UNION SERVICES.

"Relation of the Church to Public and Private Charity."

REV. WARREN P. COON, GRACE M. E. CHURCH, KEARNY.

Text: Acts 3:6. "Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have, give I Thee."

It is not what the Church has, but what it may be in the golden future. Christ's words about the rich man, the camel and the needle's eye are just as true to-day as they were then.

We should realize that we are the sons of God. God's blood runs through our veins. What we need to do is to catch step with God and walk with Him. We must idealize our view.

Poverty, hard times and liquor are a formidable array of giants which make it hard for many to realize their relations to God. Also there are spies in the land and Philistines who carry gumstick labels; that is, they are imposters, marking improperly.

The suffering needy cannot take much comfort in sermons or prayers. Charity is the spur for all social uplift. The Church's job is to be the maker of will power and incentive—Christian incentive. The inspirational church has a broader work than the institutional church. The church should not only be taught the theories of modern charity, but young men should be trained in the practical sociological remedies. Our debts to social welfare are not outlawed in seven years. The church must give itself. It must adjust itself to the new program or give itself over to the scrap heap. The church should be the centre of public sentiment.

Deep down beneath all we need to learn how to love—love to do the things we dislike to do; love one another and fill our sails with boundless hope. Everybody needs love—more love.

Monday Morning, April 26th, 1915, 10 A. M.

Conserving the Brain-Power of the State.

DR. STEWART PATON, PRINCETON, CHAIRMAN.

Ladies and gentlemen: Permit me to express my appreciation of the honor of presiding at this Conference. Events taking place in the world add an unusual degree of significance to the deliberations of intelligent people who are interested in the study of human activities. The questions up for discussion are of vital importance. You do not need to be reminded of the fact that the present crisis in civilization, the outcome of which is anxiously awaited, is, in the final analysis, a problem relating to the wise direction of human conduct. This problem is merely another phase of the aspect of the great biologic question which interests us to-day, namely, the discussion of methods for the regulation of the behavior of human beings.

The information for which we are seeking will be useful not only in lessening the incidence of crime, poverty and insanity, but will also be of service in the furtherance of rational efforts to reduce the frequency of wars. Our failures to settle great issues amicably are chiefly due to ignorance of factors determining human activities. And this ignorance is also responsible for the appalling occurrence of crime, insanity, feeble-mindedness, and all the forms of unsuccessful adjustment in living which create the necessity for the existence of Organized Charity.

Man, until driven by necessity, has never shown an intelligent interest in the effort to know himself. Three centuries ago a French philosopher affirmed that "the true study of mankind is man," and two centuries later a French physician, responsible for instituting great practical reforms in the care of the insane, also called attention to the methods by which the human individual could be studied.

It is very important that we should see the entire problem—

or series of problems—of Organized Charity in the proper setting.

Life is a process of adjustment. Failures of adaptation are represented by the criminal, the feeble-minded person, the patient afflicted with a psychosis, the nervous wreck, the drug habitué, and the child who has difficulty in keeping up with school work. Who shall be selected to assist these unfortunate people to readjust their lives on a plane where the energy expended will not be entirely dissipated or lost? We all agree that a judicious answer to this question is: "Someone with practical experience acquired from the study of the Human Individual."

If we possess a theoretical appreciation of the qualities essential for assisting persons to adjust their lives successfully we are nevertheless strangely indifferent to putting theory into practice. For not until aroused from a state of lethargy do we seem appalled at existing conditions.

Ignorance and neglect are responsible for the fact that the number of pronounced cases of insanity in this country is far in excess of the number of students in colleges and universities; and the annual cost merely of maintaining these patients in institutions is greater than the sum expended yearly in building the Panama Canal.

If life is a process of adjustment, let us see to it that our educational system assists individuals to measure their own adjusting capacity and then aids them in acquiring the good habits essential for success in living. The requisites for successful education are, in order of importance, the capacity to do, feel, think. Society, for conventional reasons, has tried to reverse the process, with the result that a plague greater and more menacing than war threatens our civilization. We should conserve, not destroy, the brain-power of the State and Nation. Driven by a mania for acquiring information, do not let us forget the actual needs of living human beings. Let us do all we can to help in extending the scientific study of the individual in the wards and laboratories of the State Hospitals for the Insane. The chief function of these institutions is not to be merely asylums for the incurable, but to be great scientific clinics

for acquiring knowledge that, if rightly used, will prevent the increase of insanity and will furnish information to the educator, social reformer and all persons interested in the study of the regulation of the life processes.

"Social Utility, the New Standard of Conduct."

DR. WILLIAM A. WHITE, SUPERINTENDENT GOVERNMENT HOSPITAL FOR INSANE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: Dr. Paton has outlined to you in a general sort of way some of the broader aspects of the problems of the insane as it exists nowadays, and it occurs to me that perhaps I can follow along some of the lines that he suggested in his introduction.

A Greek philosopher two thousand years ago and a French philosopher two hundred years ago and more said, "The study of mankind is man." Each of those sayings presupposes something which has not been possible until to-day. The poet has realized the depth of human nature, but it took a long, long time for the psychologist to realize it, and what we feel now of the possibilities of learning something of the human animal has only been felt within the past few years. We feel that for the first time the door has been opened to a study of the human mind and human activities—human behavior, as the psychologist would call it—and we have just begun to see inside of that door, and the few things that we have been able to see make us have great respect for the enormous worth of material that must reside there and of its enormous importance.

I think perhaps I could serve you best if I try in a few words to orient you with reference to the meaning from the social standpoint, of insanity in a community. There is not any word, perhaps, which is more abused or more misunderstood than the word insanity. I am rather fond, in addressing an audience, to start in sometimes and say there is no such thing as insanity, and then qualify it by saying, of course I don't mean exactly that, but that insanity does not exist as a medical concept in the

sense that pneumonia exists as a medical concept. Now, we have a disease—pneumonia, a thoroughly well-defined disease, the causes of which and symptoms of which are well known. But there is not any such thing as insanity in that sense at all. Insanity is not a disease. If we look upon the individual and realize the enormous complexity of that individual and then think of his mind, which is the crowning complexity of the most complex animal in all the world, and then think of that mind as only being capable of one kind of disorder, it is sort of an insult to that mind. The mind is capable of having innumerable diseases, and diseased types of reaction. There are many more types of mental disease than there are of bodily disease, many more, and the majority of them are never at any time considered to have any likeness at all to the group of conditions which are included under the term insanity.

INSANITY DEFINED.

What does insanity mean then? If you were to go back to more primitive conditions of mankind, you would find that the individual in a relatively primitive society can do within very wide latitudes very much as he pleases. When he wants something to eat he goes out in the woods and digs it or hunts it, or fishes for it in the streams. When he wants to sleep, he sleeps. When he wants to go anywhere, he goes. There are very few restrictions upon his conduct, but as society becomes increasingly complex, as individuals come to live together in groups for the purposes of co-operation, there comes to be more and more limitation upon the free possibilities of any individual's act, and an individual when he wants to do something finds more and more that whenever he wants to do anything he runs the risk of running counter to something that somebody else wants to do. For example, suppose in a present-day community somebody wants money, and most people do. Now the simplest way to get money is just to take it, of course, but the requirements of civilization have laid down a long series of necessities of conduct before we can get that money. We have to go

through a long process of what is summed up in the word "earn." We have to earn the money, and we have to earn it according to certain rules and regulations, and if we do not earn it according to those rules and regulations we run counter to the express demands of the community. In other words, we have conducted ourselves in a way which is not acceptable to the community as a whole. Now, when any individual conducts himself in a way which the community does not approve of, the community has various ways of showing that disapproval, and when that conduct is of so bizarre or destructive a character that the residence of that individual in the community is dangerous to the business and to the safety and to the existence of the community itself, then that individual is removed from the community. He is either put in prison or put in an insane asylum or put somewhere where he can't any longer exercise a destructive influence upon the purposes for which the people of the community are massed together.

Therefore the type of thing which causes an individual to be removed from the community is a type of conduct disorder, and certain types of conduct disorder have been placed under the designation of insanity, and insanity therefore is nothing more nor less than a social and legal definition for certain types of conduct which render it essential, in the mind of the community, that the individual exhibiting such types of conduct should be removed from the community. Now that is the way the legal and social concept of insanity arose.

Now, when such individuals came to be grouped together in the hospitals and studied, it was found, as a matter of fact, that these various types of disordered conduct could be understood as being the result of various kinds of illness, illnesses that were manifested by disorders of brain structure, or disorders of bodily structure, that manifested themselves in the psychology of the individual, and therefore this whole group that has been designated as insane has come to be conceived of as insane people, who require to be treated and taken care of in a kindly way, and with an effort to bring about a cure, as is said, or an adjustment,

so that they can go back into the community and resume their activities as members of that community.

Now, the big hospitals for the insane throughout the country have grouped something like 200,000 of such individuals, who are unable to get along in the community, within their walls, and these people are being cared for in various sorts of ways in the different institutions.

Dr. Paton mentioned Pinel, and drew the picture of his striking the chains from the insane in the French hospitals in the latter part of the eighteenth century. It would have been well if when Pinel did that he had really done it thoroughly, and such things as existed in the hospitals in Paris had ceased to exist from that day forth, but unfortunately it is not so. The abuses and the cruelties to which the insane were subjected in the latter part of the eighteenth century, and against which Pinel raised his voice, exist to-day, and they exist in the United States in practically identically the same way that they existed then. There are places in the United States to-day where the insane are still chained, where they are kept in unutterable filth and absolute neglect, and without understanding, and the number of them that are kept in that way would probably be astounding to us if we knew, but we do not know the number because naturally these institutions that keep them in this way are not especially proud of their work, and they more or less exist in the dark, but there are whole States—one in particular that I have in mind—where practically the majority of the insane are kept in this sort of a way.

Now, then, with this conception of this group that we designate as the insane, we can see that they constitute a large defective class. They constitute a class in the community that are incapable, because of certain types of mental defect, of living in the community as useful and helpful members thereof. Dr. David Starr Jordon has defined a good citizen as one who can take care of himself, and who has something left over for the common welfare.

There never has been a time in the history of civilization when the individual counted for so much as he does to-day, when indi-

viduality was so rampant, and at the same time correspondingly; there never has been a time when society has been so complex, when the benefits which the individuals gain from social organization so great, and when correspondingly the individual had to give so much to the social organization in order that it might continue, and that he might continue to reap benefits from it.

Now, in dealing therefore with the problem of insanity, I do not speak from sentimental philanthropy. I don't believe in a type of kindness and sympathy which is absolutely unselfish. Such things don't exist. In dealing with the problem of insanity we wish to accomplish two things. In the first place we are looking after the integrity of the social community, the social organization in which we live. It is endeavoring to advance along progressive and constructive lines, to build up better and better solutions of the problems which are constantly confronting it, and the larger the number of individual dependents and defectives that go to make up that society the more difficult it is for society to effect a proper solution of those problems, the more impossible it becomes, the greater the drag-back, because of this element in the social organization, and therefore society must take cognizance of these elements which go to make it up.

Dr. Paton has mentioned the fact that twenty-five per cent. of the income of New York State goes to take care of its insane, and that this percentage is a gradually increasing percentage. Now, the time has come when society has a tremendously active and aggressive part to take in the solution of this problem, or else the very fundamental things upon which society is built are in danger of being seriously broken. So society, from a purely selfish standpoint, has to look after its own welfare, else it will be destroyed.

Now, that is the selfish side of it, and how is society going to accomplish this purpose? How is it going to do this work? It has to take care of these people. It has to take care of them in an economical and efficient way, and it has to try, for its own good as well as for theirs, to get them back into the community as useful individual components of that community.

SHALL WE CHLOROFORM THE INSANE?

Some one says to me every once in a while when they come to visit the hospital and look over the hundreds and thousands of poor miserable failures in life, "Wouldn't it be a very good thing if you could just give all these poor people chloroform or something of that sort and let them all pass away quietly and without any pain and end the whole story?" And my reply is, "Yes, that would be a fine idea. Will you do it?" That always seems to suggest a difficulty to the individual. They think it would be a good idea to have all these people chloroformed, but for some reason they don't want to do it. And I generally say, "You don't want to do this sort of thing! Would you like to live in a society where if you thought something was wrong with you somebody would grab you and take you somewhere and chloroform you?" If society is looking toward higher ideals all the while, it certainly can't solve its problems in that way. And the solving of them by the development of the altruistic and philanthropic instincts, and the instincts of helping others also has a selfish side, because society can win development by the development of that aspect of the emotional life of its components.

Then we know that the problem should be attacked professionally. This material should not be permitted to simply exist in our institutions. They must not be simply taken there to be clothed and taken care of at the public expense. That is only a negative way of dealing with the problem. The whole problem of conduct is a new problem. It has something which has only now and for the first time come into our minds, and is coming to be attacked from a scientific standpoint. We never have had, until within the past generation, any tools with which to deal with human activities in a scientific way. We are beginning now to have those tools, and here exists an immense amount of material accumulated in our asylums which needs to be scientifically studied not only for the health of the individual patient in the institution, but so that there might be accumulated that kind of

knowledge in such institutions which may be applied to help to prevent other people from breaking down along the same lines. If opportunity and duty are commensurate terms, the State that accumulates this immense amount of material has a duty commensurate with its opportunity to see that the best use of that material is made, not solely for the purpose of those poor people who are sick and broken under the stress of the battle of life, but for the generations that are to come after.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY.

The study of human behavior is more available with this sort of material than with any other sort of material. I heard one of the most prominent psychologists in this country make the very, to me, astounding remark not long ago in a scientific discussion with reference to the study of the behavior of the insane, that there was no use in undertaking any such study until we had reached an understanding of the human individual from studying the normal individual. Now, that sounds all right on the face of it. It is a well-constructed statement which bears conviction upon its face. The only difficulty with it is that it is absolutely not so, which, of course, is rather a serious difficulty. If you want to understand anything about a complex piece of machinery, how are you going to tell anything about it? Suppose you knew nothing about a watch, and you wanted to know something about that watch, how would you find out something about it? Looking at it? You might look at it from now until doomsday and not know any more about it. You have to pull the watch apart, pull off the back. You remember Helen's babies, perhaps, who pulled the watch apart because they wanted to see the wheels go around. Now, every individual who becomes ill, either in body or mind, is to a certain extent just such an experiment of pulling an individual apart. Every individual who breaks down in the insane asylum has something happen to them that makes it possible to see something that could not have been seen otherwise. It is an experiment which nature makes for us, and if we do not avail ourselves of it, it is just solely

because we are too stupid to do it, for we never will learn any better than by watching nature's experiments.

For example, anybody who knows much about the functions of the brain knows that we never would know, for example, that the faculty of speech is located in a certain portion of the brain if nature had not come along and made a lot of experiments. Some person gets an injury to that part of the brain, or some person has an apoplexy in that part of the brain, and we discover that they can't talk any longer, and then that individual conveniently dies, and we are able to have an autopsy to examine the brain and see the correlation between the injury and the result. Now, if we did not have thousands and thousands of experiments of that sort, we would not know anything about the brain at all, and, of course, in addition to that, we are able to make certain experiments upon animals and sometimes upon man.

Now, just to close by some illustrations, perhaps, which will make certain things which Dr. Paton said a little clearer. Dr. Paton spoke about the adjustment of the individual to his environment, and the fact that defects of adjustment, defects and failure in living were a result, a large part, oftentimes at least, of an absolute failure of people to understand themselves, and it is only in recent years that anybody has really thought anything about understanding one's own conduct. We have been interested in lungs and heart and that sort of thing, and we have had numerous tuberculosis propaganda sweep across the country, but the mind, which is the most important thing we possess—if we can call it a thing—is the last thing we have come to. It is not strange. It is because it is the most complex of all of our possessions, and then again it is the most obvious of all our possessions. If we have a display of the northern light in the heavens, an unusual thing, we wonder what it is all due to, but how many people in the course of their existence once think, unless they have studied psychology or medicine, have even once thought a moment of the explanation of this marvelous human speech I am indulging in now, and which, perhaps, does not strike you as marvelous, and yet it is infinitely more complex

and wonderful than the northern light. Cicero expresses it, in speaking of life, as "the business of a happy life," to lead a happy life is the business that we are all engaged in. We are all trying to do it, and the problem of living, the problem of right conduct is, after all, the most important problem to which our bodies only serve as means. We do not pay any attention to our body unless it interferes with our peace of mind in some way, and when our bodies interfere with our peace of mind, then, and then only, are we interested.

Now, I often think of a good illustration to show how defects of conduct come about from lack of one's capacity to know anything about themselves. You take the contrast of the deaf man and the blind man, and see how differently they adjust to the situation. Now, we know, as a general matter of observation, that the blind people are usually people of rare, sweet dispositions, patient, agreeable people that one usually likes to have about. They are very grateful for everything that is done for them, and on the whole are agreeable individuals and get along very well. Deaf people, on the other hand, we know are irascible, easily irritated, extremely suspicious, and find it most difficult to adjust themselves to the environment in which they happen to be. Why is that difference? Well, one reason is this, the deaf person never admits his deafness—he always pretends, not so much to other people as himself, that he is not deaf. He always acts as if he heard what was said. He always pretends to understand it, and he just gets enough of the sound or enough of the movements of the lips to misunderstand the whole thing, and he refuses to acknowledge to himself that he misunderstands it, and he has a constant warfare with the outside world because he never gets it right. Now, the blind man does not do that sort of thing, because he has absolutely to accept his blindness, and there is not any argument about it. He can't see, and he is forced, as we would say, to live his life as a blind person, and having been forced to live his life at this level, he is vastly more successful than is the deaf man, who is constantly trying to live his as if he were *not* deaf.

In the matter of education Dr. Paton has spoken about the dis-

advantages of higher education. Follow the same illustration right straight along. Take the children of poor parents in the coal mining district of Pennsylvania, a girl, for example, the daughter of a coal miner, and you send her to school, and you teach her a little of algebra, a little French, a little music; what have you done for that individual? You haven't given that girl the possibility of living at the algebra, French, music level that she has been given a little vision of through her education, but you have spoiled her for living at the level that social conditions make it necessary for her to live at. You have destroyed something for her instead of giving something to her, and the result I don't have to tell you. You have made possibilities of unhappiness, possibilities of discontent, possibilities of all sorts rather than having helped such an individual, and so it is essential that we should not only, in our educational work, test lungs and heart and what not, and tell people, as Dr. Paton has well said, that they should not stretch their lungs or their heart too much in this or that direction, but they should, above all and more than all, know something about the psychological level at which they can live and learn to be able to know themselves sufficiently to feel what the extent of their own powers may be, and to accept the necessities of the situation, make the best of it and be able to develop themselves at the level at which they are efficient, rather than to try to fly to some higher level to which they are unable to adjust and at which they are inefficient. So the problem of the insane as we find it presents numerous possibilities of working out problems of human conduct, of human behavior, which undoubtedly have their ramifications in every department of human activity, which have the possibilities of giving us information which will enable us to prevent an enormous amount of breaking down, that will revivify our educational system, and will help the society in its striving for the highest goals to which it has forced our direction. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—Ladies and gentlemen, with your permission I shall take the opportunity of postponing the discussion on Dr. White's very interesting address until after Dr. Campbell has spoken, and then bring up the two addresses together. It

will really be a great relief to me when Dr. Campbell is actually speaking. He is a Scotchman, and I know enough about Scotch traits to know that one of the hardest things in the world is to get a Scotchman to speak, so I will present him to you without any lengthy introduction. Dr. Campbell, of Johns Hopkins University.

"Fundamental Causes of Dependency."

DR. C. MACFIE CAMPBELL, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, MARYLAND.

It is a difficult thing, as Dr. Paton says, to get a Scotchman to speak, and it is also difficult sometimes to get a Scotchman to stop speaking once you start him, but if you give me an indication perhaps I can curtail my remarks.

This meeting itself is evidence of the feeling in the community that a great deal should be done for those who are dependent upon it. The good-will of the community as a rule can hardly be doubted with regard to the welfare of those dependent upon it. The community has the good-will, but frequently the facts are wanting which would enable the community to translate the good-will into actual concrete proposals, into actual methods which will enable the citizens to carry out those measures which in a more or less vague way they feel to be desirable. It is only now, as a matter of fact, that the community is beginning to try to understand some of those problems which they have previously merely observed as rather distressing social phenomena. With regard to the whole problem of mental disorder, which Dr. White has taken up, society feels that a great deal has to be done merely from the point of view of the care of these sick people.

I wish to make a few remarks upon individuals who are dependent upon the community, those who have failed in other ways—the inefficient, the paupers, the degenerates, those who have offended in sexual vice, the drug habitués, and the delinquents, and I only wish to deal with the problem from a certain

aspect. I do not wish you to think that I am in any way trying to cover this very complex problem in a complete way. We are now trying to understand things in a way which previously, perhaps, we have not been given the apparatus to enable us to understand. The topic of mental disorders is becoming somewhat more clear, and in many cases now we can trace mental disorders; we can trace the mental disorder of the individual to an early stage, and we can see that what appears to be a rare, obscure maladjustments is really the termination of a life of rather faulty mental habits, and we see how, if conditions had been more ideal at an early stage, the later tragedy might have been averted.

With regard to mental disorders, however, the situation is very complex, and frequently the whole home environment might have had to be somewhat different for that tragedy to be averted. Society has absolutely no apparatus at present for modifying the environment of the individual home. When we take up the study of these other forms of dependency to which I wish to allude, we shall find that society has an apparatus which it does not use, perhaps, in the most effective way. With regards to these forms of dependency the early period is just as important as in cases of mental disorder. If one takes, for instance, the problem of the delinquents, one needs merely to refer to the fact which Dr. Healey emphasizes in his admirable book, "The Individual Delinquent." He says that the greatest part of that problem consists in the treatment of the chronic offender, who forms the large bulk of the delinquent class. We know also that the chronic offender usually has begun to show the first evidence of delinquency before twenty, usually at about puberty or in the adolescent period. If, therefore, these individuals have already shown evidence that there is a possibility of their later becoming such serious problems to the State, the natural thing is for us to take up the consideration of what the State is at present doing with regard to people at that age. The one aspect of the problem to which I wish especially to refer is the fact that of the delinquent population a very large proportion are mentally defective, and that that mental defect becomes

manifest at a fairly early period of life. In every school population there is a certain proportion of children who do not make normal progress and who are a bugbear to the teacher, who seriously handicap the teaching of the normal child without themselves deriving any compensating benefit from the school environment. The general attitude with regard to these children is that they are less intelligent than their neighbors, and being less intelligent the teachers feel that they cannot pour in quite as much instruction, give as much information as they can pour into the normal individual; but they persistently keep pouring in the same stuff until the vessel runs over. Now, that is one of the very important facts about the whole situation. When we find that so very little benefit is derived from this type of education, it raises up the problem not merely of the education of the subnormal child, it also raises up the problem of the education of the normal child, and, as Dr. White has said, it is really from our study of nature's experiments that we begin to understand the workings of the normal individual. We find that the reason that these children are getting so very little benefit from their instruction is because very little attention is paid to the sort of individual who is getting instruction, and what the exact aim of education is, and that raises a problem which very often has never occurred to the teacher, namely, what is the aim of education? Dr. Paton fortunately is never tired of emphasizing the fact that education does not consist in the imparting of information. It consists in the formation of habits. We know that subnormal children are somewhat peculiar material, they are different throughout from the normal child. These individuals are plants of a somewhat different nature, and if we are going to educate them, and if we are going to educate the normal child, perhaps we have to consider something about the nature of the plant. We have perhaps to prune the plant occasionally, but we have to give up the idea of pruning it in the fashion of the pictures of the formal gardens, and we have to give up the idea of molding and polishing, and what is still more fatal, varnishing the individual. We have to allow that individual to grow, very largely according to the constitutional

makeup of the individual, regulating the habits, however, according to the ends which we hope that that individual will subserve.

Now, when we are educating a child we are apt merely to communicate a certain amount of instruction which has been handed down in a traditional way. We don't always consider the aim of that child. We don't always consider what it is going to do, what he hope the child is going to develop into, what situations it will have to meet and why it should learn certain things, and what are going to be the most useful habits for it.

With regard to the subnormal child we find that it is never going to be able to face many of the situations for which a normal child is trained. It is perhaps never going to be quite independent. It is never going to be able to grasp very abstract matters. It is never perhaps going to be able to respond quite in the same way to the conditions which are of such importance for the happiness of a community, namely, to the ethical standards of the community. We must remember that our response to the standards of the community, the conduct of the individual, is, like all conduct, a function of the brain, and that subnormal children very often are possessed of a brain structure which does not allow them to respond to these finer elements. Such a child is possessed of a structure which does not furnish it with the necessary inhibition, which, of course, is a condition of well-balanced conduct. The child is apt to be looked upon as rather perverse, whereas the child is frequently quite unable to realize, to appreciate, and quite unable to inhibit.

The problem of looking after these subnormal children, therefore, first of all demands some understanding of their makeup. We shall have to consider, to a certain extent, what they are going to be, what they will be able to carry out and what will be their later position in the whole community. As a matter of fact if we pay no attention to these matters, if we simply give the child what we call the ordinary education, that is to say, let the child drift through the school, we find certain definite reactions. We find first of all that the subnormal child is rather more easily peevish, becomes rather irritable under unsuitable school environment; truancy is the natural result of an unsuitable education,

even with the normal child. Truancy leads, of course, to the association with the worst companions. In that case you will find the subnormal child, who is in any case rather suggestible, not able to inhibit his reactions. We find that he very easily accepts suggestions of these companions, and at a very early age may develop bad sexual habits, and later addiction to alcohol, followed by the first step in delinquency.

What is striking is that all those facts are perfectly patent, and I feel that they are almost too commonplace to refer to. These facts are at the disposal of the community. They have been published in books. Dr. Goddard's book on feeble-mindedness is full of such examples, and Healy's book on the individual delinquent puts them forward. Although these facts are so obvious, they seem to have led in very few cases to any definite combined effort to deal with the situation, while a great deal more effort is placed upon questions of looking after the end products, as if we were very much more interested in looking after the shipwrecked mariners than in really charting out the channel and seeing that few shipwrecks occur.

From the point of view of economy, the situation is very much like that of a society which provides excellent hospitals for cases of typhoid fever, while it is paying absolutely no attention to its water supply. We know as a matter of fact that communities as a rule will not pay any attention to their water supply, however well they know about the facts of typhoid fever, until they have gone through an experience, until they have had an epidemic and counted the cost and find that it is on the whole rather cheaper to have a good water supply than to have an epidemic.

It is about time now for society perhaps to count the cost of its neglect of the defective child and to see whether many of the problems of treating the end products of dependency might not be much more economically faced at an earlier stage, whether at least this one very important source of dependency might not be dealt with in some broad social way.

Of course it is an extremely complex question. I don't profess to be competent to deal with it from various aspects. From the economic standpoint it is a problem which each State, with

its own special budget, with its own special necessities, has to face in the best way possible. The fact is, however, it is not sufficiently recognized to be a problem.

If one looks at the problem as it is presented to the physician in the dispensary of the Phipps Clinic at the Johns Hopkins Hospital, where during the last year twenty-one women were brought in for examination who had had twenty-two illegitimate children. These women were all mentally defective and the highest mentality of any of these women was the level of a normal eight-year-old child. Four of these women were sixteen years of age, and two or three of them were seventeen, and eleven of them were under twenty. Now, I think it would be very well worth while, from the point of view of social economy, if someone were to work out the comparative expense of looking after the illegitimate children of these women—and these children are very likely to be rather defective—and the expense of preventing these individuals drifting into this situation.

One has practically the same situation with regard to a lot of the children which are brought to us after they have passed into the Juvenile Court. We find that they are seriously below level, and what is more we find it was known for years at school that they were quite different from normal children, but there was nothing to be done apparently about it. There was only one routine for those children to go through there—to go through or stick in—until they were old enough to leave it, and there they stayed until they dropped from the school environment, only to become dependents or a menace to the environment. One may feel that after all comparatively little can be done for these children, because it is a constitutional defect, and one cannot modify the original constitution. I had occasion to observe the workings of a class of twelve subnormal children, a special class where the school environment takes into consideration their special needs. Before these children came to the class they had all been known to be truants, they had practically all made an appearance in the Juvenile Court. Now, during the year that they spent in that special class none of these children were truants, they came to their class, they liked to come, they didn't need to be driven

to it. The reason was that the opportunities they got there, the opportunities of developing the stuff of which they were composed, were adapted to their nature, and with normal function we know that happiness goes, and these children were happy. What was more there was no case of juvenile delinquency among these twelve scholars during the year, although one pupil, we were sorry to hear, did make his appearance in the Juvenile Court. On investigation, however, we found he had simply thrown a banana at a man who had called his mother names, and the judge reprimanded the man who had called this boy's mother names and complimented the boy. We felt that was a distinct score.

The improvement was brought about by a very simple procedure, namely, trying to understand the children who were to be educated, and keeping in mind the possibilities of the children. These children were never going to be wage-earning citizens, able to conduct themselves according to normal standards. We, therefore, considered all they could do was to come up to a certain level of industrial efficiency. The habits that they had to acquire were habits not of a superficial knowledge, but we wanted them to have solid habits of doing things for which they were suited, and doing them as well as they could be trained to do in an orderly manner, and we find that children who are trained that way and who attain a certain degree of efficiency are very much more adaptable to orderly life in the community, and they do not drift into the most troublesome forms of dependency. They are much less liable to develop bad habits and to become alcoholics and to become vagrants. It is probably more economical for the community to give these children a school environment which takes into account their special characteristics.

If one looks around a community and considers well, that is all true, but, after all, what is one to do? The difficulty, of course, is very largely that of the magnitude of the problem. It is a very large problem, and in view of the magnitude of the problem there is apt to be some fatalism. It is so difficult to meet the whole situation. The question, therefore, I should say, is what

are the first practical steps to be taken? Not what is the final solution of this, toward what utopia should we aim, but what are the first steps to be taken? And it seems to me in any community which has an organized school system that there should be some census of the children, that every head master, every principal of a school should know how many children of that school are deficient, and should know, perhaps, approximately what the grade of the deficiency is; that is, whether the child is really so absolutely deficient that it should be sent to an institution or whether the child has a minor grade of deficiency which simply requires special care, and which will not prevent the child from getting along fairly well in later life with a certain degree of supervision.

There is one point I would like to call attention to, and that is the fact that this school problem is not strictly separated from the home problem. Society has no apparatus for entering the home and reorganizing the environment of a child, but no person can study the child, whether in hospital or school, and treat and reorganize the environment there, in view of the actual possibilities of the child, without being forced more or less to get into contact with the home and to bring his home into contact with the school. It is a novel idea to the parent to see their children studied and understood, and when the school atmosphere is brought into relationship with the home one finds that the atmosphere of the home is rather subtly transformed, and the school as the community center radiates out into the whole community with a very profound influence. We have seen that again and again, that the attention to a special child in a family has been the cause of a very great change in the mental hygiene of the home. It seems, therefore, to be a primary condition that the community should know something about the number of children who are absolutely requiring rather special consideration, and the principal of a school who has not made an approximate census of these children is really wanting in breadth of grasp of his problem.

One can take it for granted that there will be found in each large school population a certain number of children who ab-

solutely require special consideration, and we then have to consider what measures should be taken, whether one should arrange to have a special school or whether there is an indication rather for special classes. These are practical problems which will have, of course, to be determined by the special needs of the community and its special opportunities. But the important thing is not so much exactly what arrangement society will make to look after these children, but first of all that society shall recognize the existence of this problem, and realize its extreme social importance, if not from higher consideration, at least from the economic standpoint; and if they go beyond the economic and consider it from a somewhat higher standpoint, then they will find that due attention to the demands of the subnormal child will raise the standard of education throughout a whole school system and may finally penetrate even to the universities. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—We are fortunate in having with us to-day a number of the pillars of the State, Dr. Kendall, President Johnson, and Dr. Cotton, and others, and I shall give them just a moment to collect their thoughts and then I shall ask them if they will not take part in the discussion of these two very interesting papers. Now, while we give them just a silent moment, let me call your attention to a typical case, the case of the child that always belongs to the neighbor next door, and of course never to ourselves. I mean the child who succeeds in making parents do exactly as it wishes. It is a common problem and one which is not very successfully handled, and yet this child furnishes the connecting link between the home and the rest cure later in life, and sometimes the hospital for the insane, and sometimes the court for the juvenile delinquent, and sometimes, unfortunately, the prison. It is an important educational problem which has not yet reached the attention of the American people. What are we going to do? How would you treat the child who seems to be successful in making the father and mother do their duty? Now, may I give you a few suggestions? In the first place, try and get that child into healthy surroundings. If the home is not a suitable home, try and get it into

some quiet place in the country and then cut off any stimulant such as movies and shows of various kinds, and then give to the child as much common sense and attention as you give to the dog. When you tell the child to do a thing—you don't need to tell it to do many things in the day—but when you tell it to do one thing, if necessary, just as you do to the dog, give up the afternoon to making the child do that one thing. It may take most of the afternoon to train a puppy, and a child is very much like a puppy. You will find out that there is a remarkable change when the child has fetched a stick or done some simple thing at your bidding. Insist in forming the habit of obedience, and then repress yourself and not tell the child to do unnecessary things, but treat the child exactly as you do a puppy and then try and give that child a quiet, regular life. If the teacher sees the child is irritable in school and can't be controlled, then put that child for half or three-quarters of an hour flat on its back after a midday meal, and, instead of letting him go to entertainments, perhaps in the evening, put the child to bed before eight o'clock and keep it there until the next morning. These are very simple things, and yet these few simple mechanisms, if acquired early in life, may prevent a nervous breakdown later in life and may keep the child out of court and make a useful citizen of him.

Now these are simple problems and problems that are generally neglected in the school.

I had a very interesting conversation with a distinguished Englishman on Saturday, in which he said that his experience with students in this country and England taught him that the American student was the most adaptable student in the world and that adaptability was the great weakness of the individual, the fact that he was amenable to external stimuli.

Now that is the trouble with most of the children who later help to fill the hospitals for the insane and rest cures. These are fundamental problems of education. Very often a half to three-quarters of an hour flat on the back after the midday meal, and going to bed at seven or eight o'clock instead of ten, will change the whole future career of an individual.

Now the two addresses that have been made are open for discussion, and I hope that a number of questions will be asked and the discussion will be an animated one. I shall not call on anybody in person to open this discussion, but I hope the delay will not be long in having it opened.

DR. HENRY A. COTTON—This Conference should feel especially indebted to the speakers for what they have given us to-day, and this section is especially fortunate in having the subject so thoroughly discussed. I heartily endorse all that has been said.

One of the points that has been emphasized is that the function of a State hospital or any State institution is not alone that of caring for the patients committed to the hospital, but also in educating the people of the community and State at large in the fundamental problems, many of which have been discussed to-day. We have endeavored to make the State Hospital at Trenton just such a center as I have described. In the last seven years we have laid the foundation for future work. In the first place, a large amount of money was necessary for us to bring the hospital into a physical condition compatible with those of a modern State hospital. This work had to be done before other problems were undertaken. We have thoroughly succeeded in modernizing the hospital at Trenton from a physical standpoint, but there is still much work to do. Coincident with this work we have developed the research work, not alone in studying the family histories of patients with special regard to hereditary findings, but important research has been carried on in the pathological laboratory and through the laboratory work we have been able to institute a treatment for paresis which was an incurable disease up to two years ago.

The work outside of the institution consists in educating the public, and especially the parents, or as Dr. Paton has so well put it, educating the teachers and educators. Recently through the co-operation of the Psychological Department of Princeton University an important piece of work has been undertaken in the schools of the city of Trenton. This consists in examining carefully the defective children, not only from a standpoint of defectiveness, but also from a psychiatric standpoint in which

the abnormal as well as the subnormal characteristics have been studied. This work should be emphasized and should be probably carried further than we have even dreamed of as yet.

In educating the parents and community a more difficult problem is presented and it seems to me one of the functions of this Conference is to bring these points before the public and the people who have given it perhaps little concern previously. There still exists a very marked prejudice against sending patients to the State Hospital, although we think this prejudice is gradually weakening. Dr. White has referred to some of the State institutions which we know are in a deplorable condition, but happily I do not think such a condition as he has described exists in many of the eastern hospitals.

We have had many difficulties to contend with in obtaining money to change the character of the hospital from the old asylum to the modern hospital. The public, to a large extent, looks upon the State Hospital as an asylum, or place of confinement only, and are adverse to sending members of their family to the hospital until they are compelled to do so to protect the family or the patient from harm. They must understand, however, that the hospital is a curative institution in every sense of the word, and that as soon as a member of the family shows evidence of mental trouble they should be sent to the hospital as soon as possible. The practicing physicians are alive to the fact that these patients should be sent to the hospital at once, but in many cases the families resent the proposition to have them committed, and frequently wait until it is too late for the hospitals to do anything for the patient.

Through the education of the public it is possible for us to change their ideas regarding the hospital and make them realize the fact that the best chances for the patient's recovery are in the immediate commitment to the hospital. Often at the beginning of the patient's trouble we are able to arrest the disease, whereas if a year or two elapses the process has gained so far that little or nothing can be accomplished.

The influence of psychology on the study of mental diseases is assuming considerable importance of late in relation to delin-

quents. In all branches of criminology the teachings of psychiatry should be applied in the proper manner. Those who deal with criminal insane know that a great many persons convicted of crime after being in the prison for a short time are finally sent to the State Hospital. In investigating a number of records of such prisoners committed to the State Hospital at Trenton, we found that they were insane long before the crime was committed, and instead of being considered criminals they should have been considered as insane. This is a serious reflection upon the intelligence of people concerned with the prosecution of criminals. It seems to me that Dr. Paton's idea, frequently expressed, that more attention should be paid to the study of human activities, not only in the schools and in the homes, but in the court rooms and prisons, is worthy of consideration.

We must not look upon criminals as a blot on our civilization, but we should take a proper view and consider that most of these individuals are suffering from diseases which if recognized in their incipency can be treated and many crimes thereby averted. If we look at this question in a logical and sensible way, much can be accomplished.

It is the function of this organization to promulgate the views which they learn during the annual meetings, and I feel that the speakers to-day have had a special message for us in this State. I want to endorse all that has been said, and express my pleasure in having heard their several remarks. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—I am not going to call on Professor Johnstone and Mr. Kendall and Dr. Knauth, but I hope they can take a hint.

OSWALD W. KNAUTH (Princeton)—Could I ask Dr. Campbell in what practical way he is handling this problem in Baltimore, and what, if any, have been the results from this section that he has separated off from the rest of the town in regard to the specialization that he outlines to us?

THE CHAIRMAN—Dr. Campbell, will you answer that question now?

DR. C. M. CAMPBELL—I do not know the whole school system

of Baltimore really well enough to answer the question. As to how, in Baltimore, this question of the subnormal child is being handled, the situation is this: The subnormal children can really be grouped into two types, one the rather restless type and the other the rather docile, dull, more stupid type. The first type, the nuisance, always gets looked after. The second drifts along until he is able to escape from school. Now, the nuisances having been looked after to a certain extent by being placed in what they call disciplinary classes, it has occasionally been found possible to give them something to occupy them in the way of manual occupation, and a few of these classes are being more or less transformed into special classes, but as yet there are very few well-organized special classes where the purpose of the class are quite clear and where the instruction is along definite lines. They are still very largely classes for nuisances. The nuisances always get better looked after than the others. With regard to one school I know of the special class is doing very excellent work. That is, where, without there being any new appropriation, without there being any very large reorganization, a very intelligent principal, a woman, has simply taken the situation as it was and by using intelligence and not using any more money—perhaps she did get a little—she has managed to do a great deal for that class. Now, I think it is very important to realize that we need not wait for enormous appropriations before we start to be intelligent. With the stuff we have we can do something. That principal was intelligent enough to carry out a certain experiment. She took the first grade, which was divided into three groups. She took one group and let it have the traditional four hours of academic or scholastic training. The other group she gave one hour of this training and sent them out with a playground nurse for three hours, so they got one hour of tuition and the others four, and at the end of the year those who had had the one hour knew just as much, in fact a little more, than the others. There are, of course, complicating administrative factors. You must have a school board which is willing to carry out recommendations. Your school board, therefore, must be intelligent and interested, not merely in being on the school

board, but interested in the school situation, and if there are any people on a school board who are not so, then those who have placed these people on the school board are responsible; so, finally, the responsibility rests with the individual citizen, and a community gets probably what it deserves, and the level of intelligence of a community can probably be very well estimated by the level of its school system. (Applause.)

DR. GROSZMAN—Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen of the Conference: The last remark which Dr. White made encouraged me to say a few words. I was deeply interested in everything that was said and everything was very instructive to me. I am at variance with the speakers only in the matter of terminology as to which are the normal and which are the subnormal children in the schools. Is the shipwrecked sailor that Dr. White spoke of, by virtue of his shipwreck, a subnormal sailor? Not necessarily. Again, is the child who conforms to the ordinary demands of the school work in our public or private schools necessarily normal for the reason that he did that kind of work? Is that work the standard of normality? I remember that Dr. Goddard found in a high school of a large city some children who had been promoted up to that high school by successful work through the grades yet were finally discovered to be feeble-minded. On the other hand, among those who did *not* conform to the school work of the ordinary school we find such as have been called "distinguished dunces." Dr. Claxton in a recent meeting in Plainfield mentioned a number of such distinguished dunces who were absolute failures in school and afterwards developed genius. Charles Darwin was one of them. Thomas Edison was another. They seem to be quite normal after all, even though they were subnormal in school. I am not inclined to brand children as subnormal mentally when they do not conform to the ordinary class work. Again, I am not inclined to call a person subnormal who is mentally on the industrial level, in distinction from the one who is on the university level. A blacksmith, by virtue of being a good blacksmith, is not subnormal as compared with a doctor who is a good doctor. Even if he were ineffective as a blacksmith it might not indicate that

he is subnormal. Maybe he is ineffective as a blacksmith because he ought to have been a doctor, just as there are inefficient doctors who would better have been blacksmiths. That is an old trite saying. I repeat it simply for the reason to show that while there may be different levels and different types, we are not ready to say that these differences mean differences in normality.

The term "normal" is as yet very indefinite, and we shall be able to define it only after we have learned to distinguish a great number of different types. My caution, therefore, is not to discourage any constructive work in dealing with special children, or to discourage special provisions for the distinctly defective or feeble-minded, and for the psychopathic cases. I am absolutely in harmony with such efforts. What I am not inclined to do, however, is to brand children who do not conform to ordinary school standards as subnormal by virtue of their not conforming. I feel that our study of the individual child has to go much further; that we must make much finer distinctions; in other words, that we may have to break up our ordinary school work so as to meet the needs of different types and of different levels, rather than that we should be led to call those subnormal who do not conform and who do not get promoted to the next higher class in the regular time. I plead for greater clearness and fairness in terminology and for justice for those who fail because they cannot conform to the requirements of the ordinary program of school studies. This program, as Dr. White has said, is traditional, having come down to us from the time when there was a "revival" of studies, and when reading, writing and arithmetic were considered to be the only criteria of "education." We may have to make a distinction between those who are book-minded and those who are doers; sometimes the doers are not very book-minded, and yet they are often the ones that move the world.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am sure we all agree in substance with the last speaker. I have had the honor of belonging to two university faculties, and I do not think that I have ever been guilty of conferring the impression the subnormal are confined only to the students. I quite agree with the presentation of the

case of the last two gentlemen, but it, after all, is just a matter of definition.

DR. CALVIN N. KENDALL (Trenton)—Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I wish that Dr. Campbell had had time to tell us, in his allusion to the Baltimore schools, about one of the most interesting departures in school organization in this country. A few years ago I had the opportunity of visiting the Baltimore schools at some length, and the most interesting thing that I saw was the classes for especially gifted pupils. There were a number of those classes, and they had been organized, not in response to a public demand, as I think Dr. Campbell will bear me out in saying, but through the enterprise of the then superintendent of schools in that city, who felt that the gifted child, or the bright child, should have his innings in the public schools as well as the ordinarily gifted child or the subnormal child. These children, gathered from the seventh and eighth grades, were brought together in special groups and particular buildings and given the opportunity to do two years work in one, and they did it without detriment to their health.

I think public school people are realizing now more than ever before that there are great differences in children. Some are book-minded and some are doers, as Dr. Groszman has pointed out. The big problems are in organizing special classes in the way they were organized in that building in Baltimore to which Dr. Campbell has alluded. This taxes the ingenuity of principals, and it also sometimes taxes the ingenuity of principals to get the thing by the the Board of Education.

The fact is, we need to remind ourselves, in discussions like this—our topic being “Conserving the brain power of the State”—that so far as the public schools are concerned the great factor is the teacher. There is danger of losing sight of this important fact, in these days of discussion of school expansion, which I heartily approve; in these days of discussion of vocational and industrial education, which I approve; and in these days of discussion of the subnormal child, which I approve. We need more good teachers. Teachers as a class were never so devoted and intelligent and painstaking as they are now, but it

is not to be forgotten that we require an immense number of teachers, and I am somewhat doubtful as to whether we would think we had quite so many subnormal children, whatever that may mean, if we could place a good teacher in every school-room in the State. (Applause.) We need in our discussions, in our thinking, to remind ourselves that the great mass of children—five hundred and fifty thousand in this State—are of the normal sort. I do not believe that there would be any great number of subnormal children if we could have the right kind of teachers in all the schools of the State.

I have in mind a particular school in a rural district where the children were said to be particularly mentally deficient and uninterested in school, and a chance visit seemed to indicate that condition of affairs. Happily, however, this year a fine teacher has been placed in charge of the school, a woman who is possessed of the idea that she is a missionary in that community, a gifted woman if you choose, so gifted that a lot of other districts in that part of the State are trying to hire her away from that particular district, as I happen to know. She has introduced hand training into that school, and some industrial education which they never had before. She is allowing the children to do their own work. They are now thinking. She is giving them a chance to exercise their ingenuity and their initiative. Some good people of this State have contributed some good books and some pictures to that school, the school board being too poor, or, at least, thinking they were too poor, to buy them—which was the same thing so far as the children were concerned. I haven't time to describe it further, but those children are interested. They are coming to school. They are on their tiptoes, so to speak, practically every hour in the day. But this is a rare teacher, and not all teachers can be expected to be rare teachers.

There is another thing of which we ought to remind ourselves, and I have said this before, and have said it so many times that some of you perhaps are tired of hearing me say it—that the responsibility or the load that is placed upon the public schools is simply enormous in comparison with the duties or responsibilities that were laid upon the schools a generation ago. I haven't time

to prove that statement, but I think that some of you know what I mean. There is this point that I want to make, namely, that in conserving the brain power of the State we should consider that there is a responsibility laid upon fathers and mothers as well as upon school teachers.

As a matter of fact, during the first fifteen years of a child's life he is not in school more than one-fifteenth of his time, if he goes to school all the time. Fourteen-fifteenths of his time during the first fifteen years of his life he is under the tuition of his father or his mother, or of streets and alleys, and not under the tuition of the schools at all. To put it in another way, if a child is in school between the ages of six and fifteen every school day four hours a day—a situation which does not obtain in many districts of this State or in many districts throughout this country—he is not in school more than one hour out of six. I am talking about the hours when he is supposed to be awake. Five hours out of six during the time he is awake the teachers in the schools have nothing whatever to do with him. The responsibility belongs elsewhere.

In some sections of the State, congested cities, children ought to be on the school premises longer than they are. I don't mean that they should be studying books longer than they now do. In some of the schools they are studying books too much and things not enough. In some schools there is too little attention paid to developing play activities, particularly in the rural districts, where children must be taught how to play. In many rural districts they don't know how. If we are going to do for these children what we ought to do and what the State expects to be done, we have got to have the children in some of the cities—not everywhere in the State—a longer time on the school premises, with more industrial training, and with more supervision or teaching of play.

Conserving the brain power of the State for the bright children, for the subnormal children, as we call them, and for the normal children, if we are to do it effectively, if we are to do it the way it ought to be done, means some demands and some additional demands upon the taxpayers of the commonwealth.

Conservation of the brain power of the State means that we have got to have special types of schools and it means, in the last analysis, in some communities, more money for schools; and that is a question which school teachers ought not to be called upon to settle, nor principals nor superintendents. Often even Boards of Education are not in a position to settle it. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—I am sure we are greatly indebted to Mr. Kendall for his remarks. I think I can assure you that if I were to take a vote of the speakers upon this platform that it would be unanimous in confirming what Mr. Kendall has already said. One of the best ways to attack the problem of the increase of nervous and mental diseases is to pay our school teachers much more than they are paid now, so that we may attract those with sound mind and sound bodies to take charge of the children.

Also I should just like to say one word as an alienist. If the State of New Jersey had a great psychopathic clinic similar to the clinics that exist in so many of the continental cities, where patients went at the early stages of their disease, where the public would learn to recognize the early stages of nervous and mental diseases, where physicians would be educated and school teachers, within a very few years there would accumulate in the State of New Jersey a large sum of money now spent on taking care of these hopelessly insane which might be devoted to the public schools.

E. R. JOHNSTONE—Dr. Campbell has suggested that if we are to understand the normal child we must study the subnormal child, and Dr. Paton has just given the answer—a psychopathic centre. Dr. White's work should be greatly extended, and that can only be done if Congress gives him the necessary money. He is ready and willing to greatly increase his scientific work, and if the Government will enable him to do this the State will soon follow.

You are wasting the time of these speakers if you do not act. Write to your own members of Congress and ask them to act. Write to your friends in other States and tell them that you

know that the insane need better care and a better understanding, and tell them to write to their members of Congress, then write a little later and ask if they have done it—then tell them to write again.

When a Congressman gets a letter from “back home” he politely replies. When he gets dozens of them he acts. Dr. White is doing great work—give him your support.

Then when our New Jersey Legislature meets, get busy here. Dr. Evans and Dr. Cotton need your help and influence at Trenton. You pay the bills, you have a right to at least suggest how the money shall be used, and every member of the Legislature is really glad to vote money for these things, if he feels that he has the support and urging of the folks at home—the folks who vote for *him*.

DR. MIKELS—Mr. Chairman, I wish to emphasize the importance of establishing psychological and psychopathic clinics in the State of New Jersey. You mentioned the fact and laid a great amount of stress upon it.

In the Psychopathic Hospital of Boston, Massachusetts, they have an out-patient department. This out-patient department has a well-organized social service. It acts in close co-operation with the school system of the city. It also acts in close co-operation with all the charitable organizations. The prime object of this out-patient department is to detect as early as possible the fundamental causes of delinquency and mental defectiveness. As soon as the defective or deficient person has been examined and the case diagnosed in a scientific way, the social service carries out its part in seeing that that individual is properly placed in some institution or under proper surveillance so that he will not become a menace to society or a burden to his family. Dr. Fernald, of the Feeble-Minded School at Waverly, Massachusetts, has established an out-patient clinic in connection with his institution, and he has been working for the last few years in close co-operation with the out-patient department of the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. It is just this kind of an institution that should be established in every large civic center of this State.

We have, in the city of Passaic, in connection with the City Hospital, a psychopathic ward, and only recently, when the Board of Health of Newark was reorganized, an appropriation was made to extend this particular department, and I think part of the programme is to establish, in connection with this department, an out-patient dispensary. Dr. Christopher C. Beling, who is the force behind this particular movement, has within the last few years shown remarkable results in his work. A large percentage of patients who would have been sent to the State Hospital direct from the jail or lockup have been referred to this psychopathic department for observation. Some of these patients were arrested for drunkenness. After they had cleared up from their intoxication, a scientific mental examination showed that a mental defect was the underlying cause of the person's demeanor and maladjustment to his environment. Under proper treatment and proper co-operation these patients have been benefited.

There are several classes of people who get into discord with their surroundings and are immediately sent to the State Hospital for treatment. If all these patients could be sent to a psychopathic clinic for careful observation and temporary treatment to determine whether they are afflicted with a mental disorder that will require several months or several years of treatment in an institution, it might be possible for us to save a great deal of expense to the community. In Newark we have started along the right line in regard to the detection of the fundamental causes of degeneracy or insanity.

Dr. White brought out in his discussion some very important facts about social utility, and this impressed me with the importance of the work that is being done in the State institutions and some of the county institutions at the present time. As you may know, the last Legislature made a special appropriation for the construction of an industrial building at Morris Plains, where the patients of the institution might engage in diversional occupation. Their introverted energies are being redirected along the line of useful pursuits. This is what we are doing at the present time in Morris Plains with that small appropriation that we received last year. We are giving those patients employment

that have been in the institution several years and have never done anything useful. We are getting them out of those wards where they have lived indifferently, and are placing them in a building properly ventilated, properly illuminated, and fully equipped with all sorts of material and apparatus to work with at their pleasure. We have taken that little building and made it a house of joy and cheer. Patients that have been in the institution for years and have never done anything are now contributing in some cases more than enough to pay for their maintenance. I can recall one case in particular that came to the institution twenty-two years ago, never did a thing that contributed to the resources of the institution or to his own personal belongings, and now he is working at the type case and composing enough to more than compensate for his maintenance; in fact, he is doing at the present time three-fourths the actual amount of work that would be done by a normal compositor. (Applause.)

MR. STONAKER—I do not believe you want to put yourself in bad, but there is an idea that you are forgetting, that you are not an anti-suffragist and no woman has been allowed to speak.

THE CHAIRMAN—I should like to comply with your request and hear from the ladies, but I am really terrified by the severe manner of the secretary, Mr. Easton. He told me to bring this meeting to a close at half-past twelve and possibly I had better resign the chair. If there are no more remarks just now, possibly those who feel the need of lunch would like to take this opportunity of going to it. Now I know these speakers too well to thank them, so I am going to reverse the ordinary performance and thank this audience for listening to us.

Monday Afternoon, April 26th, 1915, 2 P. M.

"Protective and Correctional Care of Juvenile Delinquents."

JUDGE HARRY V. OSBORNE, NEWARK, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—You will observe, if you have read your program, and I presume most of you have, that the topic of the session for this afternoon is "Protective and Correctional Care of Juvenile Delinquents." Most of us have been, at any rate some of us, more or less delinquent in the past, and I have no doubt that you will find this subject one of somewhat personal interest.

A juvenile delinquent has come to be quite generally regarded as an offender against the law who is under sixteen or eighteen years of age. As a matter of fact, a very large proportion of the offenses upon which the charge of juvenile delinquency is based are not, properly speaking, crimes, are not morally wrong, and are merely unlawful because they have been made so by statute or ordinance. It is only within recent years that the youngster has been brought into court for playing "Hookey"; that his natural impulse for play has been translated into a predisposition to a criminal career because his elders, in their eager crowding together in the cities have forgotten to provide any better place than the street for a game of ball; or that swimming in the canal has demonstrated the need of institutional care where the shower bath is the nearest approach to a real swim.

The juvenile delinquent then is that fractional part of some millions of children who have run counter to a very elaborate and intricate set of social rules and regulations which we have embodied in the law.

When you consider that they all come into the world as untaught savages, recognizing nothing but their own uncurbed desires; many of them with little of breeding and none of that hereditary culture which we dominate "instinct" in the

brute; still more of them with no moral force directing the most plastic and impressionable years of their lives, is it any wonder, after we have enveloped them in a maze of prohibitions, most of which they cannot even comprehend, that some become entangled. Is it not rather to be wondered at that there are so few?

It has been said that not more than a quarter of the children of school age in this country are healthy, normal children, that the rest are handicapped in some way by physical ailments, deformity or nervous disorder, or are precocious, retarded or actually feeble-minded. It is from this great body of "exceptional" children that the juvenile delinquent is chiefly recruited and it is to meet the situation thus presented that the efforts of juvenile courts, probation officers, State institutions, and various private agencies are chiefly directed, and in studying the situation we have come to realize that in order to meet it adequately these defects of body, mind and character must be ascertained and, in so far as possible, corrected, for we know that to expect and to secure the best results the body and mind must be sound. Unfortunately the most efficient protective and correctional treatment will not bring about that result in all cases. Our investigations in Essex county at the House of Detention indicate that over 30 per cent. of the cases of boys passing through that institution now need, or will need in the future, permanent custodial care; and of the girls nearly double that percentage. The reason for the larger percentage is because of the nature of the cases for which the girls are detained and not because of any larger proportion of mental weakness in women generally; a full discussion of that aspect of the matter, however, belongs more properly to the problem of the feeble-minded. Of 336 juveniles examined from May 1st, 1914, to date, only 12 per cent. were found to be normal. About half the deficient were retarded from one to three years, and the other half were retarded more than three years. Large numbers of these defective delinquents are constantly being sent to custodial institutions, there to be studied, and such treatment afforded as the case requires, or transferred to an institution for permanent

custodial care. Reports of these preliminary diagnoses are forwarded to the institution to which the child is sent and reports from those institutions confirm our investigations. Of course, where possible, and there is no doubt as to the condition, the defective child is sent directly to the institution provided for its permanent care.

Our physical examinations have not been as complete as they should have been, owing to the difficulty in securing that interest in the matter from the authorities so necessary to its successful prosecution, and the lack of funds to employ a physician especially for the purpose. We have labored under great disadvantages to secure such results as have been obtained. We have learned enough, however, to venture some conclusions. It was found that the 173 boys examined were affected by heart or lung trouble, skin disease, rupture, defective eyes, ears, nose, throat and teeth, particularly the latter, 94 of the 173 examined having defective teeth.

Of the 28 girls examined 20 had bad teeth, and many had other defects, including spinal curvature, the principal trouble being abnormalities of the genitals, seven being diseased.

The offenses of the juvenile range practically through the whole criminal code, by far the largest number being larceny, followed by incorrigibility, disorderly conduct and malicious mischief, which designations cover that large multitude of minor offenses which have come to take on the aspect of "crime." The average age, in Essex county, is about 12½ years. It is significant that the majority of these violations occur at this period of unrest and instability in the child's life, and I sometimes wonder if we elder children are quite as patient, quite as sympathetic as we should be; if we do not fail to grasp the point of view, and perhaps expect too much from the youthful, immature and often backward mind of the child with whom we have to deal. We sometimes forget that even we were young and that even we sometimes violate the law.

I have no doubt the problem presented in the various counties throughout the State is much the same—the boy is a boy whether in the city or the country. I have only been able to secure copies

of the report of the probation officers of Hudson, Essex, Mercer and Union counties. From an analysis of these reports it is very apparent that the percentage of juvenile delinquency in the large cities is very much greater than in the small communities, and I am convinced, even from the superficial examination I have been able to make with the very meager statistics of this State at hand, that juvenile delinquency is largely the result of congested population. Not necessarily that the city boy is more depraved than his country cousin, but rather that his temptations and his opportunities for violating the law are so much greater; he is arrested and punished for the things that nature demands he shall do, while the boy in the smaller community has opportunity afforded to give vent to his natural instincts without running afoul the police. This means more playgrounds in the big cities.

My effort to present some sound basis for my conclusions, and my failure to secure any reliable state-wide data on the subject leads me to suggest the establishment of a department, preferably connected with the existing office of Commissioner of Charities and Correction, for securing, tabulating and publishing data from the various counties and municipalities throughout the State, concerning the subject, showing age, sex, nationality, offense, physical and mental condition, and disposition of juvenile delinquents. With such data at hand we might approach this subject with something like intelligent consideration in an effort to at least better conditions.

The Legislature of this year has passed what practically amounts to a revision of the laws relating to the care of children, defining what constitutes abuse, abandonment, cruelty and neglect, and aiming to hold the parent primarily responsible.

I am informed that Mercer county has just provided separate quarters in its jail for juveniles. This, of course, is a great improvement over the disgraceful conditions existing in other counties of the State, where children held as witnesses or pending the disposition of their cases are still confined to the common jail. Do you know what this means to the child? To be thrown in contact with maudlin, drunken men, depraved, vile-

mouthed harlots, and all the rest of that motley crew of social outcasts that inhabit in close association the common jail, for in the smaller counties the jail is used to serve sentences as well as a place of detention. Make it your business to visit your county jail and see for yourself what it is like.

In Essex county there has been a building used as a house of detention for some years; it is really a part of the jail, although across the street and separated from it. The normal capacity of its dormitories is 25 beds for boys and 20 for girls. The minimum age for boys at this institution has been seven years and for girls 9; the maximum age for both, 17, and the average for boys 13 and for girls 14 years. The average length of confinement during the past year for boys has been 8.8 days and for girls 24½ days. This, then, is the situation presented in connection with the establishment of the new institution in Essex county under the law of 1912, providing for a Parental School in first class counties.

This law provides that the judges of the Court of Common Pleas in first class counties may, after determining the necessity for a parental school, appoint a board of trustees, who shall have power to acquire land and erect buildings for the detention of all persons, male and female, under the age of eighteen years, who may have been adjudged juvenile delinquents, convicted of violating any criminal statute, held for appearance in the juvenile court or detained as a witness. It will thus be seen that, under the terms of the act, the school performs the functions of both a place of temporary detention and of custodial care.

Now, the problem confronting Essex county was to provide an institution which could be used in this dual capacity. Without question, a house of detention must be located conveniently near the police stations, the courts and the homes of the children; undoubtedly the ideal location for a school for custodial care would be in the country, where industrial training and agriculture could be made a part of the prescribed course. The pressing necessity for abandoning the present building, which is totally unfit for the purpose, and is needed for women witnesses or prisoners, impelled the Essex County Board to purchase land

in Newark for the purpose. Plans have been prepared, and the board is now advertising for bids. We hope to have the building ready for occupancy some time in the fall of this year.

A very great amount of time and care has been devoted to the plans of the Board. The juvenile court will have quarters in the building, which will include a room for the hearings, separate waiting rooms for men and women, and offices for court attendants and probation officers assigned to juvenile court work. There will be rooms for conducting the mental and physical examinations of the inmates; receiving rooms for boys and girls, and sterilization plant; recreation rooms and class rooms; provisions had been made for a small two-room isolation hospital on the roof, but, owing to the inadequacy of the funds at our command, we have had to omit that for the present. After considerable investigation and correspondence with existing institutions of a similar character throughout the country, the board decided upon the individual room plan in preference to dormitories; this permits the segregation at night of various classes and types of children. We will have twenty-eight rooms for boys and fourteen for girls, and, in addition, a six and a four-bed dormitory for very small boys and girls, making a total capacity of 34 boys and 18 girls, with the building so constructed as to admit of wing extension, giving increased facilities. Of course, there is absolute separation of the boys and girls at all times.

I am indebted to Mr. Flemming, a member of the Hudson County Board, for the data necessary to enable me to report on the situation in Hudson county.

There they have apparently been able to secure a considerable tract of land within a reasonable distance of the court house, and have, as a consequence, adopted a somewhat different method of construction, one more adapted to their larger tract of land. Mr. Flemming writes me that the board has adopted plans which call for "an administration building and two cottages joined by a cloister, which are to be used as hot houses, the roof of one side being all glass. These buildings are located on a tract of land containing nine and three-quarters acres, with eleven acres of

land under water, which can be reclaimed very reasonably, as the Newark bay, on which it is situated, is hard bottom and very shallow, the property fronting on the Hudson County Boulevard, and has a water frontage on the bay of about one thousand feet." He goes on to say, "We intend to use these buildings as a place for the detention of juvenile defendants, both awaiting trial and after commitment from the court, the object being in holding the children there and forcing the parents, by a careful probation system, to improve the family conditions, so that the children can be returned to them with some hopes of decent living. We do not intend to have committed to this institution the children who need continued custodial care, which children will naturally be sent to the State Homes, it being the intention to only send children there where the delinquency has been caused by bad home conditions. Provision has been made for the care of a few girls in the administration building, where they will be kept separate and apart from the boys. In the educational line the accent will be laid on vocational work, as the law provides for agricultural pursuits, there being plenty of space for this purpose on the property.

"The juvenile court will be located, as at present, in the county court house, and facilities will be supplied for conveying the children to the court, and also it is planned to give the judge a small room at the home, where he can go and 'get acquainted' with the children and the families in an attempt to solve the problems of improving the conditions of the home.

"The ground was purchased for \$32,000, and the buildings will probably cost in the neighborhood of about \$40,000.

"We hope to be able to occupy the buildings by not later than Thanksgiving. The buildings are all built under the specifications of the State School Law, and are fire-proof and have complete sanitary equipment.

"The property is in the northern part of Bayonne, not very far from the county park site, and is in the same relative position between the boulevard and the bay."

The problem and the application of the remedy, it will be seen, run much along the same lines in both counties. We have in

Essex, however, the Newark City Home, now in existence, an excellently managed institution, which does much to help us there, as a large number of Newark boys are sent there instead of to the State Home. It was the existence of this home that largely induced the board of the new parental school to decide upon the course it has pursued, for the problem is largely Newark's problem, most of the boys coming from that center.

The establishment of these two new and important institutions in the two largest counties of the State make the subject of this session, "The Protective and Correctional Care of Juvenile Delinquents," of timely interest.

"Protective Care of Girls."

MISS MAUDE E. MINER, SECRETARY, NEW YORK PROBATION AND PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION.

Four years ago I learned that a girl, fifteen or sixteen years of age, "Swiss" Annie, had been barred from entering one of those very worst resorts of the Tenderloin district in New York City, because she had thrown a beer bottle at a negro waiter there. Three days later, when riding on a Sixth avenue street car one afternoon, I saw a young girl walking down Sixth avenue near Thirtieth street. She wore short dresses and a little blue straw bonnet tied under her chin. Her walk and her manner of dress indicated her profession. Because this very young girl was apparently soliciting on the streets, I left the street car to speak to her. I talked to her in her own vernacular, asking her how she was getting along, and if she was making a lot of money. She easily and quickly corroborated my suspicion. As we walked down Sixth avenue together, she told me that she had left her home in Jersey City to go on the vaudeville stage; then finding that the work was irregular, and that she could not make a living, she had followed the suggestions and advice of some older women of the street. She had been leading a life of prostitution for three weeks. When we arrived at Tenth street, we went into Waverley House, a temporary home for

delinquent girls, maintained by the New York Probation and Protective Association. Without asking any questions, Annie accepted my invitation to come in. I then told her what her real position was, that she had no right to run away from home and solicit on the streets, and asked her if she would return to her home. She quickly said, "If you will just go over and see my mother and beg her to put me away, I am perfectly willing to go home." We found the mother in Jersey City, where she had lived for two years since coming from her home in Switzerland. She was grateful to learn of her child and glad to have her return. As she heard the story about little Annie, she said, "Would that we were back in my own country where we could be safe." She thought with horror of the danger of bringing up her five other children in a community where they might fall into such serious trouble. Then we discovered that this girl was the same little "Swiss" Annie who had been frequenting the very worst dives of the Tenderloin district.

That girl came into my office just a few weeks ago. She had been married for two years, after having worked for two years steadily in one place. She told me of her happy life with her husband and of her efforts to help some other girls. One evening her husband said that he had seen a young girl, a distant relative of his, wandering about the streets in New York City. She had run away from her home in Jersey City two or three days before as the result of a quarrel with her stepmother. Annie said, "I told my husband he should go straight over to New York, should get that girl and should bring her to my house. When he bring her, she have no decent clothes and I give her some of mine and get her to make up with her mother." Annie did the same thing for that fifteen-year-old child, who was already entering upon an immoral life, that had been done for her. She said in explanation: "You help me, why I not help another girl?"

During this year a sixteen-year-old girl, Fannie, was brought to Waverley House from a disorderly resort in Paterson. A few weeks before she had been taken from New York City by a man, Samuel Lemburg, who had pretended to marry her. He

had met her in a moving-picture theatre in Harlem, had offered to marry her, and had induced her to buy furniture for her new home in Paterson with two hundred dollars which she had saved by hard work as a servant. She never dreamed that she was helping to furnish a disorderly resort. It was only a short time afterwards when a government official found her in Paterson, raided the house, and arrested the five procurers who were involved. All of the men were charged with interstate traffic, having brought the girl from New York City. The chief offender, the man who had pretended to marry Fanie, was sentenced by the Federal Court to eight years and one day in the Atlanta Penitentiary; the four other men were sentenced to shorter terms, one to four and others to terms from six months to one year.

Last night, or rather very early this morning, an Italian girl who had run away from Hoboken, was brought to Waverley House. Recently we have been having many of these runaway girls brought to us, as the result of an order issued by the Police Commissioner that officers may bring them to Waverley House instead of making a charge against them in the court and detaining them in prison. This Italian girl, who had been only five weeks in America, had quarreled with her parents in Hoboken and had gone to New York City in search of relatives there. When found wandering near the exit of Pennsylvania tunnel at Eighteenth street, she had no addresses and had no idea where to go. Within a few hours her home was located, and at ten o'clock this morning the young Italian woman went back happily to Hoboken with four relatives who came for her.

I mention these girls because they show the kind who come to us—those who have started upon a life of prostitution, and those who are in danger of entering it. The prostitute is not a vicious girl; she is not a prostitute by nature. The prostitute is the unprotected girl. She is the young girl. She is the untrained, uneducated girl. She is the one who has been working hard and long for small wages. She is the exploited girl, and society has been responsible for this exploitation. Society has been responsible for this lack of protection.

Now what are we doing to protect these very girls? What can we do to keep them from prostitution and to save and help those who have chanced to fall into prostitution? It is a problem which every one of us should consider very carefully, whether we live in small towns, in small cities, or in big cities.

A good deal can be done by legislation and law enforcement. They are useful weapons. We need good laws on our statute books. You need good laws on your statute books, even better than you have. It was four years ago when I attended this State Conference of Charities and Correction that I urged raising the age of consent here in New Jersey from sixteen to eighteen years. I find that action still remains to be taken. Provided the government officials had not been able to secure evidence that sixteen-year-old Fannie had been brought from New York State to New Jersey for the purpose of prostitution, Lemberg would not have been prosecuted. In New York State he could at least have been charged with abduction, and have received a sentence of five years in the county court. You may be able to prosecute such an offender under some law other than an abduction statute, but practically you do not do it. I have known several cases where, under similar circumstances, men have not been prosecuted. It is your responsibility, just as it is the responsibility of people in every State, to get the right kind of laws on your statute books. I know that the matter of raising the age of consent was considered in your Legislature last year, but the bill failed of passage. This year it was not even introduced. Perhaps at the session of the Legislature next year, after the men have given the vote to the women of New Jersey, you will put that law on your statute books. I hope this will be true.

In connection with law enforcement, we have a real responsibility. Good laws are of little use if we do not have the right kind of officials to enforce those laws, and if every individual does not insist that laws be enforced. Public opinion puts life into any law and demands its enforcement. The responsibility rests upon us to create that public opinion which demands that honest officials be charged with the duty of law enforcement, and that laws on our statute books actually be enforced.

I congratulate New Jersey that this last year it has written upon its statute books a law providing for policewomen. I hope you are going to be very wise in your selection of women with police powers, and in the character of work which you give them to do. If the right kind of women are chosen, and discretion used in the kind of work to which they are assigned, they can be very effective in protecting young girls.

When I was in the West two years ago I had occasion to visit a number of policewomen and to observe their work. I found that the plan of work was not clearly defined and that it still remained for them to evolve a more definite program and to develop more along the line of protective work.

One of the most important fields for policewomen is protective work, finding the runaway girls and safeguarding them before they get into prostitution. Many girls run away from home after a quarrel when things have been going wrong at home, or when taunted because they have not been bringing in money for a few weeks or months. There needs to be someone on the guard to find that girl before she falls into the power of vicious companions or actually gets into a life of prostitution.

There is need of a great deal of protective work in connection with amusement resorts. Women with police power should visit amusement parks, moving-picture shows and dance halls, and see that conditions in them are not demoralizing. If travelers' aid work is not well organized in communities, women with police power should be in railroad stations to look after young girls who may have need of help. They should also investigate resorts and conditions that are reported as being immoral in furnished-room houses and tenements where a woman is needed to make such investigations.

There is effective work to be done by persons with police power without taking away work now done by women probation officers. The functions of these officers are separate and should not be confused. We need probation officers doing the court work and supervising women who have been convicted and placed on probation by the courts. At the same time we need policewomen

doing protective and preventive work which may keep some of these girls from the court.

Aside from all that may be accomplished by legislation and law enforcement, there remains a great deal to be done through education. In order to do this effectively, we must understand more clearly the reasons for young girls going astray. Statements taken from delinquent girls as to the factors responsible for bringing them into trouble enable us to develop a program of preventive work and to define methods for safeguarding unprotected girls.

Sometime ago it occurred to us that a great deal more could be done by getting girls to protect each other than by merely protecting girls ourselves. As a result we organized the Girls' Protective League. The objects of the League are to protect girls from moral danger, to promote moral education, to stimulate right thinking and clean conversation, to improve economic conditions, to secure wholesome recreation, and finally to stimulate faith in the possibilities of life. That is the program which the working girls themselves are trying to carry out. Members report to us girls whom they know to be in trouble or in danger—the young runaway girl who tells her neighbor in the factory that she has had a fight with her step-mother and has gone to live in a furnished room, the discouraged and unhappy girl who has taken the first steps in a life of immorality or the reckless girl who threatens to take her own life. Girls tell of immoral conditions in places where they work and live and report violations of labor laws and of ordinances regulating amusement resorts. Young girls of fifteen, working after hours, unsanitary conditions in factories, and violations of ordinances with regard to dance halls and moving pictures are reported by various members.

Individual leagues have studied special problems. One league has taken up violations of labor laws by retail dry goods stores in its locality and another has inspected moving-picture theatres and reported violations of ordinances. Others have been doing relief work for their members, having raised relief funds to help girls who were out of work. We found that the girls could

help us with the question of unemployment. They not only report girls who need work and send them to the employment exchange, but they also tell us of vacancies in their own places of work and positions of which they have knowledge.

The leagues provide recreation for other people and for each other instead of our providing recreation for them. Last Christmas two or three leagues went to several of the hospitals in the city and on Blackwell's Island to give a little play and sing their songs. They had much more pleasure in doing it than in having anything done for them.

The league aims to stimulate faith in the possibilities of life. Opportunities for girls to develop and to make their lives count in great service for others, are gradually opening before league members. During this winter 129 girls were given scholarships by the league for additional training in special classes.

As we realize the moral danger which threatens young girls, let us ask what we are doing to lessen vice in our own communities to protect girls, and to create public opinion that will make it impossible for young girls to go down to a life of prostitution. Let us ask ourselves those questions, let us consider them very carefully, and as we go back to our communities let us carry out the determination to do more protective and preventive work.

THE CHAIRMAN—I have no doubt whatever that Miss Miner is primarily right when she says that when the women vote the age of consent will be changed to eighteen years, and I say that because I believe from my experience in the Legislature that if you want to get through a moral proposition that you have got to get the women back of it. I don't want to say anything against the men, but they can't measure up to the women on morals and moral questions. I do not think anyone will contradict me, particularly none of the men will contradict me because they are too polite, but it is true.

One of the reasons probably why there are not more prosecutions for some of these offenses is because of the failure of evidence, failure to get enough evidence. We have apparently plenty of laws in New Jersey to meet this situation such as has been de-

scribed in the opening of Miss Miner's remarks, and those cases are prosecuted and there are convictions, but they are of such a character that the newspapers do not say much about them, and the result is the public don't hear much about them, unless it happens to be a case of a peculiarly sensational character, so you do not really know just what is being done. In some cases there is a failure of justice because of the fact sufficiently strong evidence is not procurable for the grand jury or prosecutor to move on or for the jury to convict on.

Probably there is no part of this matter we are discussing this afternoon or no one part of it more difficult than the training of the boys. Now, those of you who have ever tried to train a boy will understand what I mean. Those of you who are boys of various ages will understand what I mean, and therefore we come to the next subject on the program, "The Delinquent Boy from the Institutional Point of View," by Doctor Franklin H. Briggs, Superintendent of the New York Training School for Boys, at Yorktown Heights.

"The Delinquent Boy from the Institutional Point of View."

DOCTOR FRANKLIN H. BRIGGS, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE NEW YORK TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS, YORKTOWN HEIGHTS.

Ladies and gentlemen: Let me preface, if you will, my remarks on the subject assigned to me by stating as I have listened this afternoon to the description of the efforts that are being made for the physical, mental and moral welfare of juvenile delinquents, as I have listened to Miss Miner's most deeply interesting description of her work, there has arisen in my mind this thought, isn't it a pity that a boy has to become delinquent, become the subject of judicial cognizance—I don't know as I use that word exactly right, for I am not a lawyer—before he can have that careful physical examination which the Judge has described? If bad teeth contribute to delinquency in a boy, why shouldn't those teeth be cared for long before he becomes de-

linquent? If the removal of adenoids contributes largely to correct conduct, and I believe that it does, then why should the poor little fellow have to wait until he gets into court before it is discovered that these adenoids are there, and their removal be brought about? The pity of it is, ladies and gentlemen, that we pay so much more attention, or we take so much more interest in the little boy or the little girl after they become offenders against the law than we do before. We establish a splendid corps of probation officers in our courts to look after children after they become offenders. Why don't we take equal interest in preventing those same children from becoming offenders?

Twenty-five years now I have been looking into the faces of delinquent boys. I have a great many more friends among that class than among any other, because my life has thrown me into so much more intimate relation with them, and I know, beyond a shadow of a doubt, that had the same efforts been put forth to save them before they became offenders that was put forth afterwards, they would never have become offenders.

But the delinquent boy from the institution point of view, why is he there? Why is he in the institution? Largely because he did not choose his ancestors wisely. Do you know that of the many thousands of fathers and mothers of delinquent boys whom I have met I would hardly want to choose any of them for ancestors. The delinquent boy is the victim of heredity or environment, and most of them both. Do you stop to realize that the parents of these delinquent children are almost universally economically dependent, and in the larger number of those cases the parents are dependent upon irregular employment. There is lack in the home, so the boy, when he comes to you for petty larceny, or for incorrigibility, or for some of the more serious offenses, arouses in your heart a great pity as you look upon him, as the physician looks upon a case, not as being culpable in having offended some of the physical laws or the moral laws. A sick body or a sick soul? Can you apply the remedies? Can you give the aid which will enable that sick body or that sick soul to regain its health? So a great charity, a great kindli-

ness, a great love, if you please, as well as a great pity for the weaknesses constitutes the institution viewpoint of the delinquent boy. He is very human. He is vain, but he is in a very large company. He is selfish, but there too he is in a goodly number. His moral view is influenced very largely by his wishes. The fact that he wants a thing, so far as he is concerned, makes it right, and in that respect he is not an isolated example by any means. I have in mind a gentleman who was widely known in the section of the State in which he lived. He was at the head of a large corporation. A friend of his said to me, "It is unfortunate that through the years Mr. So and So has gradually come to the point where he convinces himself that anything he wants to do, any course of procedure which he desires to take is right because he wants to take it."

The matter of self-control is the important question in the treatment of juvenile delinquents from the institutional point of view. The great difference between the good citizen and the bad citizen is this, the good citizen controls himself: the bad citizen has to be controlled by someone else. The good citizen goes along the street never thinking of the policeman. He is thinking about some good he is going to do. The bad citizen is glancing over his shoulder to see where the policeman is, to see whether he is safe or not in pursuing the course of conduct which he proposes to do for the time being.

The boys come to an institution utterly without self-control. They have not control of their bodily functions. In nine cases out of ten they can't do anything well with their hands. If you take them into a shop and give them tools, they get hold of them in the most awkward way possible. If you take them out on to the farm and ask them to use any farming tool, they get hold of it in the most impossible way that you can imagine. They cannot make their hands or their feet do as their mind directs. Similarly, their mental faculties are not under control. They are the most slovenly pupils in the world, most inaccurate. The difficulty is to get them to do things accurately in their school work. If they sit down to play a game of checkers or a game of cards, the same inaccuracy attends. As I have before indicated,

the thing that they want to do is the thing they will do without regard to consequences. They have not the power of denying themselves a present gratification for a future good. They have not the power or the desire when they come to you to deny themselves anything, the gratification of which is going to injure someone else. They don't take the other person into consideration at all. Now, the problem is to take a boy with that point of view and bring him to the point where he has regard for the rights of others, and bring him to the point where he will deny himself present gratification for future good, bring him to the point where his mind is filled with thoughts of useful things, of desires to do the right thing.

Now, how is that to be brought about? You never can put him in a plaster cast and bring that about. You can't exert any amount of outside pressure and bring that about. The great reforms of the world have been brought about through the human voice, through kindness, through self-sacrifice, through love, and it is by means of such agencies that the boy must be aided to change his course of life. The boy has come without any social training at all, of course, from homes that are economically dependent, so it is important to give these boys training in social life, to put them in groups sufficiently small so that there can be the home atmosphere in the place in which they live. The progress of the world, ladies and gentlemen, has been made in the home. It has not been made in barracks.

We should use the utmost care in placing these boys in groups that no boy shall become worse because of his association with another boy. It is a crime against boyhood to put a fairly decent, innocent-minded boy into contact with the product of the worst slums of a great city, and no one has any right to do it. The moral leper, and unfortunately there are some such, should never be allowed in an institution to work his evil work upon comparatively innocent-minded boys.

I have in mind just now a case where I come in contact with a couple of boys every day who are as nice fellows as you could wish to meet. They are from back country districts. The sole offense of one was that securing work away from home four or

five miles distant he found a boarding place, a decent place, too, near where he was working. His father, a drunken, worthless fellow, lodged a complaint against the boy as being incorrigible because he did that. Now, he was sent to a large congregate institution to mingle with the worst that New York City produces. The other chap, a smiling, bright-faced boy, whose father is in one of the State hospitals, got sort of weary of the daily grind of the farm. A circus coming to the nearby town, he left home for the afternoon without his mother's permission and attended the circus, and he was sent away as an incorrigible child to mingle with the same class. Do you wonder that I plead for prevention?

I have seen these boys without any previous home training, without any social training, becoming so enthused with the idea of helping somebody else, making it pleasant for somebody else, being kind to somebody else, that they voluntarily sat up at night so that when the doctor came to attend their supervisor, they might take his horse and let him get to his patient just as quickly as possible, and nobody asked them to do it, and the physician told me afterwards that he would not have known there was a boy in the house from any noise that they made all the time he was there, and there were twenty-three of them there.

A little girl was confined to the house during the holidays, and the boys made a bird party for her, of their own suggestion, mind you, setting up an evergreen tree in front of the window of the room where she was confined and attaching pieces of meat, prunes and bread, so that the birds would come.

I have been entertained in the cottages where boys of that kind lived, always with the greatest courtesy and greatest consideration. I have had them at my house and they were always gentlemen. The great thing with those boys is to point out the true way. A group of them down at my house one night played a lot of games that I supposed every child was taught to play when they were seven or eight or nine years old. The games were entirely new to these boys. A short time afterward they were giving a party in their own cottage and the matron said to them, "Now boys, what are you going to do for your enter-

tainment to-night? Are you going to play cards?" They said, "No, let's have games of the same kind that we had up to the superintendent's house the other night."

I became quite seriously concerned because going about among the boys I heard remarks rather derogatory to the occupation of farming, spoken of as mossbacks, hayseeds and all that sort of thing. So I took occasion to invite a number of farmers who were entirely successful men, who as farmers were having an income of three thousand dollars or over, and each one of these various gentlemen were asked to come and talk to the boys along his special line. One was an expert potato grower, growing four hundred and eighteen bushels to the acre, from fifteen to sixteen acres of land. Another was an expert dairyman, and so on, and I took great pleasure in introducing these people to the boys as farmers, but not mossbacks or hayseeds. Nothing green about them at all, and it was wonderful how soon the current of thought was changed. The power of suggestion—we don't begin to realize the value of it. Our newspapers—and I am not criticising the newspapers now at all, because the papers supply what we want to read, they have news to sell and they find out what you and I want to buy and sell it to us—constantly contain suggestions of wrong. The most flagrant crime, the most heinous, the most abominable, has the biggest scareheads on the front page, and the boys of the class that come to institutions see those and they have been having everlastingly before them suggestion of crime and of wrongdoing. They have been having everlastingly before them the suggestion that the wrongdoer can escape punishment. Some dastardly criminal whose name ought not to be mentioned or his face seen in public has his portrait in the newspaper and some poor deluded fellow thinks that is a pretty smart thing, and there is the wrong suggestion sown in his mind at once.

So in the institution the boy, from the institution point of view, needs constantly to have suggested to him the right thing, not the thing that he should shun, but the thing that he should aim at.

Many years ago, when the bicycle was so popular, if people

learning to ride had tried to keep their eye on something and had aimed at some point that was clear of the obstruction they would have gotten through and missed the obstruction. In morals as well as on the bicycle we follow our nose, and we arrive at the point toward which our nose points. Keep the boy's nose pointing constantly at something that is good. If it is a series of ball games see that they are all busy thinking which one is going to win the next game. They are not dealing in harm. Meanwhile, with a dozen or fifteen of them, each controlling a number of hens, each trying to see who can get the greatest number of eggs from a hen per month, they are not thinking of anything wrong. They are thinking of something that is worth while and they are growing toward it all the time. I have seen one of the worst boys regenerated by the care he took of a Holstein calf, and that Holstein calf had a bath every day, and the white was just as white and the black was just as black as it was possible to have it, and that calf shone like velvet, but it was no more the calf than it was the boy, in taking care of the calf the boy grew in manhood.

All the activities of an institution are centered about that one idea, What can they do for the boy? What interest can they give him in things that are decent, in things that are true, in things that are worth while? In the schoolroom the lessons or method of teaching are not toward the idea of self-control, but toward the passing of examinations. We think that is the worst thing we have in our public schools at the present time. We force our teachers to have their minds on whether the pupils are going to pass the examination or not, and whether Tom, Dick or Harry, or Jennie or Mary or Fannie, gain in character during that time, we do not ask. The question we ask is, Did they pass? They may pass to the devil within six months afterward, but that does not concern the school. Not at all. The time is coming when our teachers, and the teachers are not to blame, mind you, they are just like the newspapers, they are doing the things we ask them to do. We insist that our children should pass examinations, and if they do not pass, "Madam teacher, what is the trouble with you? Only so many of your scholars

passed." The members of that class may have made greater development in character, greater improvement in self-control than any other class in the school, but that does not count. It is the passing that counts—like the old gentleman whose advice to his sons was, "Now, boys, get money. Get it honestly if you can, but get it."

The spiritual side of the man that determines what he shall be is never neglected in an institution that has the real interest of the boys at heart. I don't mean the namby-pamby kind of religion. I don't mean the kind such as some people have who shout in meetings, and then go out and rob their neighbor's hen-roosts, but I mean the spiritual force that drives the man to do the right thing, makes him kinder to his neighbors, makes him more honest in his dealings with his fellows, makes him aspire to something nobler and better. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—We have on the program this afternoon, as supplemental to the two addresses which you have just heard, some of those who are interested in the work in our own State. It would seem to be very necessary, in order to make these Conferences of any real value, that we have some practical application of the things that we hear at these sessions. It occurred to me as I listened to the last talk, particularly with reference to the two boys that had been sent up for apparently very trivial offences, that it might be a good thing if this Conference would devote one of its sessions next year to the training of judges, so that we could, if possible, have some degree of intelligence injected into the sentencing of these people who go to the institutions. And while I say that, apparently in jest here, I am a good bit more serious about it than you may think, because I believe that the one weak spot in our penal and correctional system is the failure of the judge to individualize in the punishment which he metes out. There is too much of the yard stick and the bushel measure method about the way the judge handles his end of the problem, and there is no excuse for it, because if there is any one aspect dealing with this whole question that ought, in the very nature of things, to be intelligently dealt with, it is the part of it that the judge has the responsibility for, be-

cause those men are at least supposed to have intelligence and sound judgment enough to handle the problem as it ought to be handled. (Applause.)

If some of you would take to heart what you have just heard with regard to the newspaper question—when we get through with this war which is now occupying most of the space, and get down to the normal condition, just take your favorite newspaper some day—I don't mean the one that you permit other people to see you read, but your favorite newspaper—and blot out every column that pertains to vice, crime and immorality, and the sordid things of life, and see how much you will have left to read, and how long it would take you to read it. However, I am not down for the discussion.

We have, in order not to interrupt the continuity of the main talk by Miss Miner and Dr. Briggs, reserved the discussion of these papers until after the papers themselves had both been read. If you will again refer to your program you will find that in the list for the discussion this afternoon are some of our well known and very efficient workers and demonstrators, because we are all that, otherwise we would not be here. I am sorry that the situation is not reversed and the rest of the people of the State were here and we out doing what the rest of the State are doing now. I think it might do some good if we could just change the program around in that respect. It is unfortunate we can't get to more people with these wonderful things that are being done by these Conferences. However, we have recently had in the State of New Jersey an addition to one of the Boards of Managers of our Institution, a young woman who for a considerable period of time—I won't say how many years, because that is always embarrassing when you are talking of young women—was under my jurisdiction, in a sense, as County Judge, as one of the probation officers of Essex county, and I can't omit this opportunity in introducing the young woman that I am now going to call on of paying a compliment to Miss Laddey, a member of the present Board of Managers of the State Home for Girls, to her work as a probation officer of Essex county, for the work that she did was a credit to herself,

a credit to the office and a credit to her sex, one of the most efficient, conscientious and careful workers that we had, and both Judge Martin and myself were very sorry indeed when she decided to seek fields which she thought were larger and greater in the practice of law than the work which she found to do in helping us look after the delinquents in Essex county. She has been on this State Home for Girls' Board for two months, and I think probably long enough to tell you something about the work she has to do there. Perhaps after she has been on longer she won't know so much about it, for you know those of us who just begin are very apt to know more about it than we ever will afterwards.

Miss Laddey, if you will open the discussion on Miss Miner's paper we will all appreciate hearing you.

Discussion.

MISS PAULA LADDEY, BOARD OF TRUSTEES, STATE HOME FOR GIRLS, NEWARK.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen of the Conference: I'm going to speak of the girl who did not chance to meet Miss Miner, the girl who had to be sent to the institution because she was not protected in time. The present Board of Trustees of the State Home for Girls has been in office about a year, but we have learned to recognize that we must create an incentive to do right in every girl; that is, make her want to accomplish something and help her so to do. I mean that we do not want simply to discipline a girl, or to use discipline as such, we want to educate and create a desire for a higher life.

I am not going to speak of what should have been done for the girl before she came to us, but what we are aiming to accomplish at our institution with them. As I have said our Board has only been in charge of the State Home for a year so we have much to learn.

To send a girl to school for a few hours a day to do some figuring, or learn some spelling, and have her do some drudgery

of housework, is humdrum and uninteresting to her, and is not giving her a bigger education. We must bring real life to the institution, then we really create something in the girl.

Now, I do not intend to say we should do more for the girl. On the contrary, we have to stop doing for the girls and let the girls do for themselves, let the girls create something. To accomplish this we have to try to inform ourselves in every possible way as to what will be the best for the girl. To this end we have had the help and the co-operation of the State Department of Education. They sent us their expert vocational trainer, Mrs. Iris Prouty O'Leary, and what I am going to say now and the changes which we are urging in our State Home are largely based on her report and suggestions. Our main object is to increase our industrial work and to correlate our industrial work with our school work. We want to eliminate as much as possible the drudgery and we want to readjust and install some labor-saving devices, because they are really the things which are going to help the girls. We want to make them better. We want them to want to do for themselves and help them thereby to develop their characters.

For instance, we want to have the girls know what true homemaking is, and it is very hard to do that in an institution with masses of people. For that reason, in our institution, instead of having two or three or five girls in a kitchen cooking for fifty or sixty girls, we propose that one girl shall take care of about eight girls, which is one tableful, and have that girl attend to the cooking for that particular small group. The girl will have to face the criticism of her companions, which is wholesome. She will also have the incentive to have her meals just as good, if not a little better, than the next girl, who also is going to cook for six or eight. This is practical and it pleases the girl, and it is real life to her. If these little cooks must go to school in the afternoon, why not teach them to spell the utensils which they use in the morning, the cooking which they have done? Why not bring their school work right back to their cooking? If they have to do their arithmetic, we can correlate that with the morning's work; no matter what they do we can correlate it

with their industrial work. This principle can be used throughout the entire industrial and academic training.

But our efforts are bent just as much on giving the girl a training for a trade as teaching her homemaking. Many girls do not like homemaking and we must give them something which they enjoy and which they want. It is very hard to pick out a proper trade, because many trades require a higher academic standard than our girls have. There again we face their lack of education before coming to us. Dressmaking in many instances satisfies them. It would be well to place some power machines in our institution that our girls might gain experience which will fit them to obtain positions when they leave the institution. Unless they have some trade by which they can support themselves and which they enjoy they will not do right. They cannot.

Manicuring and shampooing are trades which girls may easily learn, but, of course, certain disadvantages are connected with them. Still, we can find positions for girls in certain establishments, and some girls have the initiative to go ahead for themselves, and they can be at home a good deal while earning a nice living among some of their friends. Many of our girls are very much inclined toward nursing, and, therefore, we could readily help them to become trained attendants. We cannot make them trained nurses, because they are not sufficiently educated. Just at present we have placed one of our girls in a hospital that she may satisfy her desire to become a nurse. As soon as people are able to make their living there is hope. They then do not have to resort to vice. Any of our girls who show an aptitude for typewriting or stenography get an opportunity to educate themselves along those lines. We would like to see our girls trained in horticulture, in farming, chicken and pigeon raising, and we hope to organize in such a way that when we have a girl who has such ambitions we are ready to train her.

We want to correlate our academic work with these trades, and thereby complete the circle of education. For instance, we can get all the arithmetic that our girls need, if we relate it to our farm work, the cost of the production, the market value,

amount of vegetables raised on a certain area, etc. There is no branch of arithmetic which we cannot correlate with our farm work. We have many of our girls who are out on the farm, and who enjoy the work, and we make them enjoy it more through this correlation.

As you see, we are anxious to equip our girls to earn an honest living, but there is one drawback, and I have spoken of that before. The girl in the institution may get many opportunities, but she does not get the chance to earn and spend money. If we could overcome that lack in our institution, I am sure we would be very, very much more successful in many instances. At the State Home we have a kind of cottage plan. I regret that I cannot say that we have an entire cottage system. This is a great drawback which I want the people of the Conference to know. We have one building which houses about one hundred and twenty girls. That is divided into two wings, the east and west wing. We hope some day to have cottages, and not have more than twenty-five or thirty girls in a cottage. Besides the large building, we have also a few cottages for the younger girls, the colored, and an honor cottage for those who are almost ready to be paroled.

I would like to try out the scheme in our home of paying the honor girls for their work, requiring them in turn to reimburse the institution for their board and clothes. We should allow as much freedom as possible in the selection of their clothing, and thereby the girls get an idea of what it means to earn money and what it means to spend it. This is one of the things which the institution so far has not been able to teach.

Our aim is simply to fit the girls to lead an independent, wholesome life, and the life in the institution must conform as near as possible to the life outside. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—Probably no one in New Jersey that I could mention, at least in my experience and interest in these matters, has had a more continued active, live, vigorous and efficient interest than Mrs. Wittpenn.

MRS. H. OTTO WITTFENN, BOARD OF MANAGERS WOMAN'S
REFORMATORY, HOBOKEN.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I hope you all will think it is a fortunate thing, as I do, that there should be a woman manager of the Board of both the State Home and State Reformatory for Women who has had experience as a probation officer. As you know, Miss Laddey was for years a very efficient member of the Essex County Probation Staff, and I still have the privilege of serving on the Hudson County Probation Staff. I am sure Miss Laddey would have, if she had had the opportunity, corroborated my experience with the girls in the probation office in Hudson county, which is this, that the girls and the women who come to us with immorality in different forms or for drunkenness do not make good probationers. The girls we get for perhaps more serious crimes, in the eyes of the law, so far as the length of sentence goes, for grand and petty larceny, are nearly always successful probationers. I think we have never had, in ten or eleven years, a woman committed to us for larceny who did not make a satisfactory probationer, but it is extremely difficult to find a way to efficiently superintend these girls and women convicted of inebriety and immorality.

However good our probation system is, there are always going to be a certain number of girls whom we shall not be able, with the pitiful lack of training with which they meet the world, to be helped outside of institutions. They must have the twenty-four-hour-a-day training of the institution. New Jersey is extremely fortunate in having institutions both for the young girls and for the older girls and women, including those convicted of the most serious crimes. Certainly, if it had not been for the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections the Woman's Reformatory would not have been in existence. We call the institution Clinton Farms instead of Reformatory. We like the idea of it being a farm, such a place as the girl might mention when she goes home. Some of you know, perhaps, that our reformatory is situated in Hunterdon county, half way

between Somerville and Easton, a very beautiful district. The State's institution for tuberculosis is on the mountain above us and right in the foot hills below Glen Gardner we have a farm of three hundred and forty-six acres. The general theory is an acre per inmate, and I believe that we will never have many more than three hundred and fifty women in our care there, so that we have provided for the future in the size of our acreage. There are farms adjoining which could easily be purchased later on if more land were needed.

On that farm we have at present two old wooden farm houses which have been adapted for the immediate use of the women. We began taking women a year ago last January, so we are a little more than a year old. During that time seventy-three women have been on our books. Of those about forty are at present at Clinton and the remainder are out in the world. Of those we only know of three who are not doing excellently well. Of those three one has simply gone out with her child and we have not been able to get her back again. One has lapsed back into drunkenness, which is not surprising, as she had been drinking for many years. So I may say we have had only one failure out of that number of women. Of course, we have not had enough women yet to gather statistics of any value. So far as the women and girls that pass through our hands are concerned, we feel we owe a great deal to the understanding on the part of the girls as to what we are trying to do for them.

What we are trying to teach them through a system which is only an adaptation of what has been worked out by others in reformatory institutions, both for men, boys and girls, is to teach them obedience and discipline through liberty. It is the most difficult way of getting at it, because we all know how much easier it is to force any man, woman or child to do what we are in a position to force them to do when we have them in our power, than it is to teach them to do those very things through liberty, and yet a rather bold adaptation of this principle at Clinton has so far proved successful. The first summer we were there we did have five runaways, but we made up our minds the principal reason of that was our own ignorance, because we

had planted grain right close up to the buildings. That was a very unwise thing to do, as when the girls decamped they hid in the corn while we were going up and down the roads trying to find them. So when we had those girls back we made up our minds there were only two ways to make them stay there, either to curtail the girls' liberty or to make running away unpopular in the institution.

Last spring we took seven women from the State Prison. Some of them had been there as long as nine years, of course behind bolts and bars. We took those women into our two old farm houses, where there is no way of confining them even if we had tried to. It was absolutely within their power to get up and get out at any moment they chose.

We have a number of rather delicate anæmic girls. Those girls sleep out of doors, so if you come to the institution you would see anywhere from five to eight or ten beds out on the porch.

We did use in our first building the very artistic gratings used at Darlington, but we find the sylphlike young ladies can get out, and the fat ones were the only ones who could be kept in. On our second farm house we have nothing on the windows, so the girls can get out any time if they try.

We try to implant in their minds the idea that they must do what we tell them to do. The lack of discipline is the reason they are with us, and discipline we will have and must have, but that is not going to stop their liberty unless they transgress some of our few but definite rules, and we have found this plan works out extremely well.

Our whole training is planned through the months or years they are with us, to fit them, as Miss Laddey so well explained, for the place which they must take in the world. We are all getting to recognize that the girl who, either through her lack of character or through her lack of standards, continues to lead the life that these girls as a rule have led before they came to us, must be a menace not only to the present but to the future. So it is of immense and vital importance that these girls should

have, during the short time that we have them, the training that will counteract the preceding years of license.

The way we try to do this is through their lessons, which we try to correlate with their daily work, through their household work, which we try to teach to all. We would like to make good domestic servants of all of them, good cooks, good laundresses, and neat maids that any one of you would like to have in your home. It has been a very great pleasure since I have been in this room to have a friend of mine, who took one of these girls last year, say what a splendid maid she has been, what a good waitress and cook.

With our girls, farm work is much liked. We have a woman farmer who seems to understand extremely well the way to work the girls and work the farm, and we have found also the great value of the affection which the girls have for animals. We had one girl who did not like to get up in the morning, did not like to hustle, had never tried to earn her living, and expected everything to come to her in the easiest way. That girl we put in charge of the little chickens down in our chicken house. You will remember last year we had that severe snow storm. That girl got up and ploughed through the snow at dawn for fear the little creatures would be suffering, and was always at the barn on time. It worked out admirably with her. It awakened that protecting maternal instinct which should be found in every woman's heart, and can be appealed to in just that way. I think we want to remember this connection with all such institutions. We are keeping these girls and women away from the most beautiful and satisfying and ennobling experience in their lives. We must do that for their own protection, and everything that we can do to bring home substitutes, however meagre, into their lives, we are bound to do. Just as soon as we get on a firm footing we are going to have babies there. We shall have a maternity ward. The only thing we are afraid of is the first two or three babies will be just loved to death by the other girls, but we hope a great deal from the influence of those little children, who, of course will not be hurt by being there because we shall only keep them while they are still quite young.

The institution now consists of two old houses and some old barns, but we have besides that a building which is just finished, and which cost twenty-five thousand dollars, and will house from twenty-five to thirty colored girls. Unfortunately we did not get the appropriation we asked for a disciplinary building.

We are to have a second cottage. For that we got an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars last year, and we are opening bids for it next week. In that we hope to accommodate the girls on their first arrival. The girl when she comes will be placed in this reception cottage, both for the purpose of observation as to her health and also as to what response she is going to make to the treatment which we are going to offer to her. There will be a small infirmary at the back of this cottage where we will take care of the diseased girls coming to us. This we are now unable to do.

In June we shall dedicate a chapel with a schoolroom below. We believe we have an efficient school. We are going to improve it as we go along. We have several girls who are absolutely illiterate, foreigners and others. Some of the older and more intelligent girls are teaching the younger and illiterate ones, and one Italian woman had been ten years in State Prison and had never learned any English. During the few months she has been at Clinton, the American girls have taught her quite a number of words.

There is one thing I want to make plain to you, and that is that at Clinton we carry out to the utmost extent the principle of the indeterminate sentence. We have a few girls that we are going to keep over the one-year period because they were committed to the State Prison, some of them for very long terms and some of them for life for murder, and we think for various reasons we have not the right to let these women out as quickly as we would those who came to us straight from the courts, although these women have been the least troublesome of our inmates. We know the explanation of this, that murder is generally the result of one quick action, and not of a long series of weakening defects of character. It has been quite extraordinary to see the way those women who have come to us from

State Prison have entered into the life of Clinton. We feel that these are really not the women whose influence we have to fear. It is really the woman who comes to us after having for years made money out of running a disorderly house or out of selling herself that would be much more likely to contaminate the young girls.

All do farm work dressed in the khaki uniforms that you probably all have seen at Dr. Davis' institution, and in them they go out and do real hard farming work. We find that the toning up of their physical system is helping them morally and mentally.

I am not going to say anything more about Clinton, but I am going to say just a word about what it seems to me we ought to have in New Jersey to make our system for women offenders complete. We have the two institutions. We have the probation system, but I know that those who represent the State Home will agree with me in saying that we need, before the girls and women are sent to any institution, a very much more efficient study than it is possible for any judge or any probation officer or any prosecutor's office to give to the cases as they come in.

This is not a new idea. We all know how it has been worked out on paper. In Ohio they have for some little while had a clearing house for use between conviction and sentence. That is the thing we need for the women and girls, as we need it for the men and boys. Each person convicted of a crime should be sent to this clearing house and kept there for a length of time, absolutely indeterminate, depending on how long it takes to get the facts together which will enable an intelligent decision of her or his future. I am sure that Dr. Moore thinks this is the only way also to determine satisfactorily where the boys and the men should go. The individual, then, on being convicted of a crime, could be sent to this institution which would be largely medical, psychological and physiological. In fact it would not be a penal institution at all. There that individual could be studied, both in himself and in his environment. We could then weed out the feeble-minded. We could weed out the kalikak families which we often do not recognize when the individual

comes to us. We could find out all the surroundings of that individual in his home, in his family, in his working record, in his school record, in his childhood and in his infancy, everything about him, and then that individual would come back to the court with a recommendation from the officials in charge of this institution as to how he or she should be disposed of. We have found the need of this tremendously at Clinton. In our short existence we have had two insane women, one epileptic and one or two feeble-minded sent to us who should never have come to us at all. They should, at the time they were first taken in charge, have been sent to the proper institution. That is something which we need tremendously in New Jersey but which I think is going to take a long time to educate the public officials into recognizing as a pressing necessity.

Then I think we do need a very much better treatment of the women misdemeanants, of the men and women who are sent to the workhouse in Mercer county, the penitentiaries in Essex and Hudson counties, and who in the other counties are provided for in the county jails. These misdemeanants really get no show at all. They are returned from the courts to the jail or penitentiary over and over again. We know from statistics of men and women arrested seventy or eighty times, sent back again and again. It is, perhaps, worse with the women than it is with the men. The woman inebriate needs at least two or three years for the gradual making over of her physical characteristics, to say nothing of her mental and moral ones, before she can go out and face the world, and that is not provided for at all in New Jersey, because the penitentiaries simply shut them up and do nothing more. Perhaps Clinton will receive these women. Perhaps there may be some other place provided, but there should be one altogether different treatment provided for women misdemeanants.

Then I hope it will not be long before there is not a single woman in the State Prison at Trenton. The officials do not want them there. They should not be there. They ought all to be at Clinton. We feel quite capable of coping with the situation. Then we will have a complete system as far as the woman

offender is concerned; first a better probation system, because where we have two probation officers in each county we ought to have fifteen or twenty; second, in the large counties a woman's court, where their cases could be heard separately; third, provision for the misdemeanants and drunkards; fourth, removal of all women from State Prison, then I think New Jersey will really have reason to be proud of the care it will give to its women offenders. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—Probably the best definition I have ever heard of the indeterminate sentence was given by Mrs. Witt-penn. She said they had a dilapidated old farm house, and all that these inmates in the State Prison had to do, if they did not want to stay at the farm, was to get up and get out. That is the indeterminate sentence pure and simple.

Probably the Big Brother movement has been as effective as any outside organization; that is to say, unofficial organization in connection with the work done for those who are in trouble, and Mr. Stephen W. Meader, Secretary of the Big Brother Movement in Newark, has consented to come here and say a few words this afternoon. (Applause.)

The "Big Brother" Movement.

STEPHEN W. MEADER, SECRETARY BIG BROTHER MOVEMENT,
NEWARK.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I am going to do something that may seem pretty rash in view of the vocation of our chairman. I am going to ask Dr. Briggs a leading question. I think it is a leading question, because I know off-hand, or hope I know, what he is going to say.

Dr. Briggs, you said that the great principle in reforming boys, juvenile delinquents, was one of love and kindness and wise suggestion and friendly interest. I want to ask you, Dr. Briggs, don't you believe that a great number of the boys in your institution could have been left right at home and reformed

more or less effectively if they had had a friend who could wisely apply these various principles that you mention?

DR. BRIGGS—I would have to qualify that in this regard, if economic assistance could be given in the home so as to enable the mother to supplement the aid which the friend, called by whatever name you choose, might extend; with that qualification, yes.

MR. MEADER—I am glad to say that that qualification does not hurt the answer in so far as it concerns what I wanted to say, because the Bureau of Charities works very closely with the Big Brother Movement. When a Big Brother, who is the friend in question, comes into the home and undertakes that proposition, if he finds that there is not a sufficient economic resource for that home, he immediately summons the Charities visitor, who does her share in making the mother or the father able to make the home better.

I believe that the Big Brother Movement is more or less successful, and I think I can prove it with a very few statistics. Out of one hundred and thirty boys who last year, from April to April, were assigned as Little Brothers in Newark and the Oranges, only five returned to the Juvenile Court, from which about seventy-five per cent. of them were recruited. Now, two of those were sent back to the Juvenile Court before their Big Brother had really gotten in touch with the case. He had not exerted any influence at all, so only three out of one hundred and thirty who had had that Big Brother influence actually went back to the court.

I think the New York figures, which have been running a good deal longer than ours, for about ten years, and covering thousands of cases, show that only three per cent., about the same number, returned to the Juvenile Court.

When our Chairman was speaking at the opening of this meeting, he mentioned the awful effect that congestion in our big cities is having on juvenile delinquents. I so often have my Big Brothers coming to me and saying, "Why, this boy you have given to me is not bad. When I was a boy and living in a sub-

urb, or a small town somewhere," he says, "I did lots of the same things. I was in exactly the same boat, and I never got hauled into Juvenile Court about it. Why do we call him a little criminal? Why is he brought to court for this?" I have answered by saying that when he was a boy he very likely lived in a community where all the other parents were familiar and intimate with his parents, where if he went out and did a thing like breaking a window somewhere, or if he smoked a cigarette in any part of the town, and was not old enough by rights to smoke a cigarette, somebody would see him, and would instantly send that fact back to his home. It would come to his mother, perhaps in the sewing circle. She would find it out, and he would get spanked for it. That is what happens usually, and it is bound to happen that way in a small town. In the city all your boy has to do is walk out the back door and walk a block and he is lost absolutely as far as anyone who knows him is concerned. He can go into any one of a hundred dark alleys there, down into the back room of any pool room, and there he is made at home. He is welcomed by a crowd of other boys similarly bent, who want to work off some of their surplus energy. I think that is equally responsible for the city's problem of juvenile delinquency, equally responsible with the fact that Judge Osborne has mentioned, that the boy has not, as in the country, nice innocent pursuits to follow.

I remember when I lived in a little New Hampshire town that some of the things I did—and I have never considered myself a particularly bad boy—were just about like the typical Juvenile Court case.

For instance, I remember a man upset a load of hay that he was hauling on sleds in the winter time. He upset it in the middle of the hill down which we were coasting. With great glee we started our big double-runner at the top of the hill and carried two-thirds of that hay to the bottom of the hill. The man was very angry, and told our parents about it, and we caught it when we got home. I think if that happened in Newark, we would have been landed in Juvenile Court. Another time we set fire to an old barn in which we had previously

broken all the windows. No one hauled us into Juvenile Court, though we undoubtedly needed it.

I wish Miss Miner was still here on the platform, so I could turn to her and ask her a question. I was much pleased with what she said about her league in New York. I think the big thing the Big Brother movement is doing, aside from the good it can do by handling individual cases, and keeping the individual boy out of trouble, is the development of a big crowd of interested young men. No matter if they drop the Big Brother work, if they get married and have their own kids to spank, I am sure that that bunch of men will always retain the feeling toward all boys that they got when they were in the Big Brother movement.

When they go out, down Liberty street or down Albany street, and see a boy who is too young, a boy of ten or so, smoking a cigarette, they won't hesitate to give him an old-fashioned remedy or else let his people know about it. They will have that idea, that no matter where it is or who it is, it is their duty to butt in. It may seem a strange thing at first, but that is up to them. Nobody else is going to do it. If they don't try to do something to cure that boy they will have it on their conscience just as much as if it was their own little blood brother.

That, I think, is the thing that we ought to strive for hardest. If we could get everybody, not only a bunch of young men like that—there are one hundred and thirty-five Big Brothers in Newark doing that thing, and imbued with that spirit—but say a couple of thousand people in a city—what chance would a boy have to go wrong. He couldn't get out of sight of one of those men at all. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—The next on the program is Don Shepard Gates, Secretary of the North End Community Work. I am sure that before the time to adjourn is here we would all like to hear from Mr. Gates. It is getting late, but most everybody who is not going to see Rutgers College is going to spend the evening with us for the next session, and I do not think you would tire them if you said a few words before we adjourn.

Protective Work.

DON SHEPARD GATES, SECRETARY, NORTH END COMMUNITY
BOYS' WORK OF NEWARK Y. M. C. A.

Mr. Chairman, and friends of the Conference: I have a terrible burden on my heart. This subject assigned for the afternoon is protective and correctional, two words. We have had eight speakers, seven speakers on correctional, and the whole burden lies on me in two minutes time to talk about the protective side of boys and girls before they become delinquents—before they get to our institutions.

I do believe that my part falls in pleasantest places, because this feature of the work that has been assigned to me, it is my privilege to work in, from day to day. I sometimes believe that we, in our protective work, would accomplish much more, and also those who are in the correctional work would accomplish much more, if we, in our Conferences, could come together and discuss these problems over and over from both quarters.

I have been in Community Work, a particular type of Young Men's Christian Association work, only six or eight months, consequently I am very young in the work and one cannot say very much from that short experience on this particular type of work. However, I have had the privilege for the past ten years of doing something quite similar to it.

I admire the frankness of New Jersey people. A man said to me the other day, "I heard a lot about you before you came to Newark, but I haven't heard a word since." I said, "You congratulate me. If our work works out as we plan it, you will hear very little of the North End Community Work of Newark. It is our object to work through other agencies, the public school, the church, the Sunday-school, the settlements, the playground and so forth, and make known their work rather make known our own." This special type of association work aims to place a man in a community who shall, so far as possible, be a spur to the agencies in that community, urging them to be of

greater service to the boys. Consequently I have no work of my own except as I am invited or can gratefully butt in (if you please) and help out some other agency. To that end we have been trying in many ways to be of real service to the boys of the north end of Newark, and I am in hopes that that may not only be true of the north end of Newark, but that this work may be organized in many other parts of the whole State of New Jersey. I wish I could have more than five minutes to tell you of the fundamental plan that we are trying to work out in our scheme of work. To work through other agencies is our aim. A man said to me the other day—and again I congratulate New Jersey people on their frankness—"I subscribed ten dollars towards your salary this year, but I will never again." I said, "Why?" He said, "You came here three months ago and the boys are still shooting craps down on our corner. Why don't you go down and organize them?" I said, "That is not my job." He says, "Yes, that is what we hired you for." "It is not my work to organize one corner or ten corners, but to get the agencies working for the boys—the schools and Sunday-schools—to go out and help them organize forty to a hundred corners. It will take longer, but the work will be, we hope, more permanent. So we are striving in many ways to serve the church and Sunday-school." When I mention the church I mean the Protestant, Catholic, or Jewish, because we have been able to serve all three, and have helped them organize from twenty to thirty boys' clubs. Here is one of the greatest needs. We have been training during the past sixteen weeks, meeting every week, from fifty to seventy-five young men, training them for leadership among boys, to serve as volunteers on the playgrounds, in the church or Sunday-school, wherever they may have an opportunity to serve.

I can mention several instances that would be of tremendous interest, I am sure, to you all. We have heard to-day from one or two of our men the importance and the need of more playgrounds. We do need more. We believe there is a way of getting this possibly we had not thought of before. Our movement possibly stands for this one thing. You have heard of

"back to the land" movement mentioned again and again. "Back to the parents" movement, where the parents in a certain locality will be responsible not only for their boys but the other boys as well, may be welcome also. And instead of shifting as we do now the responsibility that we should have ourselves, by paying a few taxes and furnishing a little money for some institution and say our responsibility ends there, we are trying to train parents to see their responsibility, and young men as well, so that they shall themselves want to help train their own boys. To that end I have left outside the door, that you may get one when you go out, a number of little pamphlets which will show you just one phase of our work, which explains how we are trying to aid in the prevention of crime.

Mischief which later leads to crime is often "hatched" in groups of boys on the street corner between sunset and dark. All the boys can't get to a single playground, and the state or city has no money to furnish more. "How you may help to make better boys and better men by assisting in supervising play on vacant lots in addition to the work on the playground" is the subject of another pamphlet.

Why can't we have in every city, why cannot we have in every church, a committee appointed which shall supervise at least one little playground on a vacant lot? Why couldn't men, whether connected with any church or not, do that same thing? Let me give you an example. A man came to me and said, "Here is two dollars and a half for your work." I said, "Thank you." He says, "This boys' work is great work." I asked him why. (He was just an ordinary man, with thick glasses, you could hardly see through them.) He replied, "Last summer I got a set of quoits, and my neighbors pitched quoits right out in a vacant lot near my home. In about a week we had some fifteen to twenty older fellows pitching quoits. But some kids came around and the older fellows just hate the kids and tried to drive them away. I got in touch with the leader and told him if he would bring around a dozen smaller boys with five cents apiece I would have a set of smaller quoits for them, and they could pitch them over there on the other side of the lot. In fact I

had all summer from thirty to fifty boys under my supervision, pitching quoits, and I could tell those fellows whether they could swear or not, or whether they could gamble or not, for I helped to furnish those quoits to my boys."

I was telling that to a man in Newark, and he says, "Did you say that was an ordinary man?" I replied that so far as boys are concerned we would call him an ordinary man. He said, "You are mistaken; that was a great man." We are trying to develop in the hearts of the men of the north end of Newark that spirit of wanting to understand the boy, and to serve him in these different ways. I hope that we are not only assisting in the vacation scheme; for this year we have only a half dozen vacant lots to supervise, but that in time over the whole city men will want to go out and be of service to boys, and the older boys in their turn will want to help the younger.

We have suggested certain games so the lot twenty feet square may be used, or maybe an acre lot may be used. We have suggested, and will have printed in a few days, little pamphlets suggesting games any boy can make.

I want to close with one other instance. Somebody hit the newspapers this afternoon. Of course they print what we are talking about. Why don't we consider more the protection of the boy or girl before he enters into crime, rather than have to remove him from it. Again, we are trying to get the father and son to chum with each other, and I have a lot of sympathy and I have a lot of feeling for the boy who is of wealthy parents and needs our help. A mother came to me the other day and said, "I am getting scared about my boy." I said, "Why?" "Why, he has a gang of boys out behind the house in a vacant lot and he is a general, and they are all going to be soldiers and I don't want my boy to be a soldier. Why, they even have a fort back there, and they have their trenches, and what can we do?" "What will we do?" I said; "let me call on the boys." So I went down to one of the boys and I told him I was interested in any gang of boys I saw anywhere, and this was the result. I looked around and I said, "You are not digging out all these trenches and making these forts without any plans are

you?" "Oh, no, I worked this out in school." I went away that day and came back in a few days. I had found the leader I wanted for that group of boys. I went around and I said, "Boys, have you a medical corps in connection with your army?" "No, but we would like one." "Why don't you have one?" "We haven't anyone to teach us along that line." "Have you a first-aid equipment?" "Yes." "What do you have in it?" "Bandages, gauze, and so on." I said to the friend, "Well, have you a first-aid kit?" "Yes, I have one." The boys said, "Won't you bring it around?" "Yes, I have some of the instruments right here," and pulled out of his pocket some of the instruments in the first-aid kit, and explained, "This is to cut off a sleeve, and this other thing is to take out bullets." "Will you bring around the whole thing to-morrow?" "No, but I will the next day." About a week and a half or a little longer than that possibly, that was changed from an army to almost a scout troop, going on hikes. Then the question came up how were we to make this man leader of this group of boys, but at the suggestion of the parents the boys requested that they secure this young man as their guide. They could easily afford to pay the leader of that gang or group of boys. The young man was secured. Consequently we are striving on the vacant lots to solve this problem of the boy and girl. Thank you kindly. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—We have about reached the customary hour of adjournment, and if there are any questions that anyone would desire to ask of the speakers before we finally adjourn, they may do so.

MRS. JACOBSON—I want to ask Dr. Briggs, if I may, what is he going to do with boys who are returned from his institution to the same environment from which they came, and that environment a bad one?

DR. BRIGGS—We are going to try to obviate that as far as possible, but where it is necessary to return them, have a parole officer who will have an interest in him right near his home.

MR. JACOBSON—Do you expect to have enough parole officers to do that work?

DR. BRIGGS—Not as many as we ought to have, but still enough to help somewhat. You never get in the State work all that you ought to have.

MR. JACOBSON—I think that is probably one of the most serious things we have got to face in this correctional work, that the children are taken to these correctional institutions and left there from nine months to a year or a year and a half and then return to the same environment with an inadequate supervision. They are from poor homes and nothing is being done in the home. Are the boys really benefited by the nine months in the institution?

DR. BRIGGS—That all depends, and the efforts should be made to get the boy away from his home surroundings, if possible, when he comes out.

THE CHAIRMAN—An effort should be made, in other words, not to send him back to that kind of a home unless you are obliged to.

MRS. JACOBSON—Unfortunately we are most always obliged to.

THE CHAIRMAN—Sometimes you think so, but sometimes you can utilize the vacant lots, and sometimes there are lots of others that can be used, if you look around for them. I think that is a fine idea, the vacant lot, and I hope to see more of it in Newark, to supplement the playground proposition to a greater extent.

Monday Evening, April 26th, 1915, 8 P. M.

Topic: "Prison Reform and Prison Management."

WALTER M. DEAR, INSPECTOR, STATE PRISON, JERSEY CITY,
CHAIRMAN.

The meeting was opened by selections by the Rutgers College Glee Club of New Brunswick, in the gymnasium of Rutgers College.

THE CHAIRMAN—It seems to be the province of the presiding speaker here to not only introduce the speakers, but I understand that I have to make a short talk. When I accepted this position I did not understand that I was to be called upon beyond introducing the speakers, and I hope to at least set a good example, because I know you have all had a strenuous day, and trains leave on schedule, so I will try to make it short. You know the average speaker when he first gets up thinks about how soon will he be able to stop, and then after he gets along he promptly forgets all about that.

They say about a speech, it is like the Chinese proverb about a bad egg, that you never have to eat more than half an egg to tell whether or not it is bad, and a half of a good speech is enough. If it is like the egg, then it more than enough.

In talking to the topic on the present situation of prison reform and prison management, I do not intend to go into the details of the theoretical side of prison reform and prison management, but will try to give you a few of the facts as they exist to-day with reference to the State Prison at Trenton. We have heard a great deal about the question of the State-use system. Now, I want to put myself on record on this occasion, because a matter of three or four years ago I led the opposition to the signing of what is known as the Osborne Act of 1911, at a hearing before the then Governor Wilson. Judge Osborne, who is

here to-night, of course appeared for the other side. I have not changed my views from that occasion. Now don't misunderstand me. I do not favor contract labor as it exists to-day, or as you gentlemen understand it, but I favor contract labor in the absence of a better solution, and I have yet to change my mind that the State-use system or the question of manufacturing at the State Prison is a real workable and feasible scheme.

I am fairly in accord with the abolition of the contract labor if we can get our men working on the roads and farms. I fail to see where there is any difference, so far as this State is concerned, if we should manufacture underwear as we have started there now, where the convict learns any more about manufacturing underwear and hosiery for the use of State institutions than he does doing identically the same thing for the contractor.

I have heard a great deal about in the middle western institutions, where they have a monopoly of the cordage, and I have heard that it is a grand thing because it is some form of the State-use system. My opinion is that it is nothing more or less than State monopoly without the bad effects of the slave-driving contractors. Now, the State has adopted a policy of working, as far as possible, men on the roads and at the State Farm in Cumberland county. About two years ago, through the Prison Labor Commission, a thousand acres of farmland was secured there. The greater part of it was covered with trees and brush. The soil is good. We have cleared about two hundred and fifty acres, and probably something over one hundred and fifty acres are now in cultivation.

The Honor System, as far as we have been able to adopt it, is in effect at the farm. The prisoners work practically on an eight-hour day, with Saturday afternoon given them at their leisure, during which time they play baseball, fish or enjoy themselves as they are disposed. Sunday is a day of rest and quiet, no work beyond the necessary chores being done, and the farming communities in that section, the neighbors, have been very kind and have given an organ to the farm, furnished Bibles and song books, and religious services are conducted every week.

We have at present at the State Farm about one hundred and

thirty men. On the roads we have three road camps, the first one was established in Sussex county, where we have now some forty-two men. The second road camp, camp number two, is in Mercer county, at Rocky Hill, where we have at present about fifty-eight. That will be greatly increased. Last summer we had on an average of one hundred and ten men. A few months ago we opened the third camp at Elmer, in Salem county, and, due to a fire three weeks ago, we were forced to move about four or five miles to Malaga. At that camp we have about twenty-eight men.

The Honor System, in which I am a firm believer, I regret to say, is not in as thorough and efficient progress as I would like to see it, or as those who might be interested in that work would care to see it, but we have made great progress. We have had a number of escapes, and we have had a number of recaptures. As a matter of fact, the actual percentage of escapes has been very small. From December 23d, 1913, to the end of the fiscal year, last year, October 31st, 1914, we had five hundred and forty-five men all told employed on the farms and roads. The number of escapes of that total number was about four and ninety-five hundredths per cent. The recaptures brought the number who were still at large down to two and seventy-five hundredths per cent., so that we think we have effected a very credible record in the State.

I would like to speak with reference to the indeterminate sentence and the paroling system. A recent bill, just recently passed by the Legislature last week, which I presume the Governor will sign, if he has not already done so, permits the Board of Inspectors, who act as the Board of Parole sitting on indeterminate sentence cases, to change the method. Heretofore when a prisoner has been sentenced frequently on a minimum of one year to a maximum of seven years, if at the time of the expiration of the minimum sentence he has so conducted himself that within our judgment he was eligible for parole, and would be safe to return to society, we were permitted to parole him, but he was obliged to report once a month for the balance of his term or the remaining six years. We felt that that was a mis-

take, as far as the prisoner was concerned, in constantly calling to his attention his mistakes of the past, and it was not properly assisting him in living down his record. Under the proposed law the Board of Inspectors are authorized to limit the conditions or the time of parole, the thought being that after a man has been out for a few months, and if his records are good, instead of requiring him to report every month, we will change the time to every two or three months, so that towards the last year the prisoner gradually has eliminated himself from the jurisdiction of the State Prison.

I want to speak of the proposition of compensation. Under the law dealing with the State-use system, and the other legislation we have had since that law, we are permitted to set aside a sum of money in compensation to the prisoner for his work, to be devoted to three purposes, first, for his dependents, secondly, if there are no dependents, for accumulation against the time of release, and, third, to reimburse the cost of his trial up to the amount of twenty-five dollars. Unfortunately, the Appropriation Committee in prior years has not been exceedingly liberal from the standpoint of making this system workable, and we have not had the funds to carry out the plan until this present fiscal year, when it went into effect. We have passed a resolution appropriating two and a half cents a day for workmen on the road. Now, that is considerably more than they pay at Sing Sing. I do not claim it is a munificent sum. It is a temporary proposition. We are trying to feel our way.

Last year we had a considerable deficit in the management of the prison. As soon as we find where we are financially we hope to increase the compensation, but we are trying to convey to the prisoner that he has an incentive to work.

Dr. Moore will probably touch on the question of the proposed transfer of the State Prison to Rahway, and moving Rahway elsewhere, so I am not going to anticipate his speech, but I am going to give you something now that I know you are all anxious to hear, and the next speaker is going to speak from the standpoint of the man of experience, the man behind the walls. He served sixteen years of what was originally a life sentence

at San Quentin Prison, in California, during which time he was in solitary confinement five years, which, as I understand, is more or less of a record. He then later was made a trusty, which is a considerable elevation, for four years, and finally the Governor interceded, and that is the reason we have him to-night, and I take great pleasure in introducing Mr. Morrell.

"Prisons from the Inside."

EDWARD MORRELL, SAN FRANCISCO.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: The few preliminary remarks of the chairman still ring in my ears relative to the idea that speakers are notorious for holding the platform. I think that was meant for me, and I am going to be mindful of that while I am talking.

Still, I feel there is so much to say from the standpoint of the man behind the walls that I begrudge every moment of the time, in fact, I would like to consume all the time that you could possibly spare to hear me.

In order to briefly run over some of the points that I am going to discuss this evening, I will say there is such a plentiful supply of experts on the question of penology and all the other ologies represented here at the convention that I can well afford to dispense with that aspect or phase of this subject. I know that you will be much more interested to hear or get up close to the human interest side of this question, and in order to do so I think the best thing I can do will be to run over lightly the earlier history of the Sing Sing of the West, San Quentin, California.

It may be news to you to know that we have the largest prison population, in point of numbers, of any civilized country in the world, in proportion, of course, to our population. Under the old system what was known as the straight system, or the straight sentence, in San Quentin was conducted under what is known as the congregate system, that is, all jumbled up together. I remember at one time in San Quentin, in a space about four times as large as this hall, there were seventeen hundred men

jammed up together, all the way from thirteen years of age to eighty, all conditions of humans, good, bad and indifferent.

On Sunday those prisoners would be huddled together in what is known as the bull pen, and if it was raining—and we had plentiful rains during the season there—those men would make a regular mud puddle in the yard. When that would dry up by the winds you would have to inhale dust, and the result was we had the highest death rate of any institution in America.

There was no attempt whatever to correct the evils for which prisoners were supposed to be committed. Your only salvation was to go in there and try to avoid running counter with the officials; that is, in regard to the punishment. If you had no punishment record you were considered a model prisoner and was discharged accordingly.

Just imagine a line of one hundred men passing out of the prison, and every third man that stepped out of the gate was doomed to return, no matter what his intentions might be. That went along until 1893. In 1893 we passed a parole law for the benefit of one prisoner in that State, a notorious murderer, whose case the Governor and the Board of Directors feared to tamper with. After this murderer was paroled the measure lay a dead letter on the books, as they used to say, for nearly fourteen years, and during the fourteen years only eighty-seven prisoners were paroled. In 1908 I was paroled under this law. In 1909 the Legislature convened at Sacramento; it was what is known as a hostile Legislature. They had no intention whatever of doing anything to remedy the conditions in our institutions. But the result stands as a remarkable feat of what can be accomplished when we go at things in the right way.

Fortunately for me, the man who pardoned me was President of the Senate. It is against the law in that State to lobby on the capitol grounds, so he allowed me the privilege of desk room in his chamber, and from there I met the leaders of the Legislature. Three months' work, and at the end of the three months we had a parole law making all men eligible alike under its benefits, and to cap the climax of that wonderful measure we stole a rider in on that new amendment including the lifetimers

who would be eligible after seven calendar years. I was one of twenty-four lifetimers in the prison, and I had the pleasure of seeing every one of these old-timers leave there on parole, and it stands on record that just one out of that number has been returned.

In the first three months we paroled more prisoners out of San Quentin Prison than had been previously paroled in the past fourteen years. We reversed the condition of every third man stepping out of the gate of a line of one hundred men who were doomed to return, and four out of every one hundred now return under the new conditions of parole.

I remember standing before the Judiciary Committee for four hours and one old hard-shell politician who never believed there was any good inside of prisons turned to me—evidently my arguments were convincing—and said, “Morrell, I want to ask you a fair and square question, and I expect the same kind of an answer.” “What is it?” “If you can show me any good in a second-timer I will vote for this measure.” That was easy. Well, that put him in line, and he was all right after that. So as it stands now in that State we can get almost any kind of assistance when we approach the lawmakers with anything like constructive measures.

Now, you would think it was all sunshine for our prisons and prison conditions, but we had other evils inside of the prison walls that had to be taken care of. Legislative investigation committee after committee for years and years had endeavored to root out the torture system, and yet they failed. Let me illustrate what I mean about torture. Many of you have heard of the notorious straight jacket of San Quentin, the bloody straight jacket it is called. During its run of thirteen, fourteen or fifteen years, not less than two hundred human beings have been foully murdered in that machine. I myself, when I was head trusty of San Quentin, have gone to the dungeon and cut the ropes off a victim lying dead in the jacket, and when night-fall came he would be placed in a stretcher and we would take him to the hospital and the scream would be placed around him, and in the morning he was dead; that is, officially. That went on for years.

When I came out of prison it was my intention to try to fight those conditions, and I thought that all I would need to do is to go before the different organizations, associations, men's clubs, and quietly have a talk as man to man, keeping the newspapers out of it, if you please. I spoke in San Francisco behind closed doors at the Palace Hotel to some of the representative citizens of the State, and in different parts of the State upon invitation.. I didn't get any action, not until I changed my tactics, and instead of appealing to the male citizens of our State I turned my guns upon the only reliable asset of our State, the mothers. Just as soon as I had aroused the ire of the mothers of the State of California you could see every politician hunting his hole, with the result that there was a delegation of mothers in that city of Sacramento in the galleries watching when that law was passed to abolish all forms of torture in our State institutions, including those places known as the Good Shepherd Home, juvenile institutions and insane asylums.

I was accorded the privilege of speaking before the joint session of the Legislature and I challenged the old line politicians to dare to vote against that measure, and when I put out that dare I looked up into the gallery and a lot of handkerchiefs started to wave, as much as to say, "Go to it, we are right behind you." They never realized that I had been before the Women's Federated Clubs of the State, numbering fifty thousand strong. They never realized the support and the wave of indignation that had been created all over the State against those inhuman conditions.

Both wardens of San Quentin and Folsom Prison were there in the Legislature, and one of the wardens of San Quentin said to those lawmakers, "Gentlemen, if you abolish the straight jacket in San Quentin I will not be responsible for the management of that institution," and yet, in spite of it, that law was passed and the Governor, to his credit let it be said, signed it, making it a law, and to-day those conditions are a thing of the past.

The warden of San Quentin said, "If the exigencies of the case demands I will use the straight jacket in spite of the law."

I sent him word—"I helped to make you. Now, I am going to help break you. If you put a jacket on a man in San Quentin I will know it in ten minutes by the watch, and I will see whether I can get an indictment for you before the Grand Jury of Marin county or not," and there has never been a straight jacket used there since. That was the first necessary step in the new idea prevalent all over the United States that you cannot extend the hand of good-fellowship to a human being, or to a man along the lines, as we call it, and hold a club behind your back with the other hand.

Now, I think that we lay claim to the credit of introducing the Honor System in our institutions. In fact, we westerners are rather boastful about those things. In fact, we claim that every good thing comes out of the West. The Honor System was introduced by Governor Oswald West, of Oregon, and if any of you people know the history of Oregon, you will know what that means, where the whipping post worked overtime, and yet, as if by magic, this wonderful little man, little in size but big other ways, has changed the whole condition, abolished the dungeon, abolished all the lines, and there is no such a thing as a punishment list in the Salem Penitentiary to-day. There are men out hundreds of miles working under good healthful conditions and getting paid as much as the State can afford. They are allowed fifty cents a day, clothing and food, which is equal to what they would get in a construction camp, and the number of escapes is hardly worth mentioning. The same thing exists in Arizona, and the same thing in Colorado. You all know what T'on Ton is doing in Colorado.

The last to adopt the Honor System was Washington. That session of the Legislature was a record breaking one. They passed the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Eight-Hour Law, the Abolition of Capital Punishment, Women's Suffrage, and the abolition of all forms of torture, and the introduction of the Honor System in the State Prison, and it hardly caused a ripple upon the face of conditions in that State. That is a record, and the women are voting in Washington to-day and

things go along just the same, only we hope it will be better than it has been in the past.

Now, you want to know a little about the way the Honor System is worked in Washington. I was there shortly after the system was put in operation. I went there to take some motion pictures. The Honor camp is located four hundred and sixty miles from the prison, on a place called Hudsport, on Huds canal, Puget Sound. I left Wala Wala and arrived in Seattle, in fact made a sort of a pilgrimage over the trail and followed those boys up, and, believe me, it was well worth the trouble. I found a little story of their experience in Seattle. There were thirty-five men in this gang that left Wala Wala. Henry Long, the warden, bid them good-bye and said, "Now, boys, you are going out. I have tried to pick thirty-five of the most able-bodied men in the institution." There was one lifetimer who had what they called a very bad record. The warden bid them good-bye and said, "Boys, remember and don't forget that every prisoner inside of the walls is depending upon you. You are the advance guard. You have got to break down all kinds of barriers of prejudice. Remember, you have only a few friends who are working in sympathy with this idea, so be careful." That was all. They left there alone. They were to meet a representative of the Superintendent of Highways office at Hudsport. So they arrived at Seattle. They had on citizens clothes and each of them was given a small amount of money to cover expenses, and they never thought of separating after they got on the train. In Seattle, by force of habit, they all bunched up and landed at one of the hotels in Seattle, and it happened to be a very fair hotel, that catered to the commercial element. To see these thirty-five or forty men all file in there attracted the attention of the management right away. The leader walked up to the desk and registered. One after another wrote Wala Wala, Wala Wala, all down the line. The manager naturally supposed it was some delegation from Wala Wala attending a convention about to come off at Seattle, and wondered that the hotel management had no information beforehand about these men who had suddenly come into his hotel. Why, he was in the seventh

heaven. He says, "Gentlemen, have you any particular rooms decided on," and so on. No, they said, "Any sort of a room will do us." He thought that was all right. They were easy.

Usually around the lobby are two boys called flyguts, a kind of detective. Some called them "Dicks." One of these little fellows skipping around recognized in this bunch of boys an old-timer he had helped to send over the road. He walked up and said, "Hello, Jim, how are you? When did you get out?" Oh, he says, "I am not out." "Why," he says, "What are you doing here?" "Why," he says, "I am with that bunch," he says, "going to the Honor Camp." "Oh, oh," wise right away. He snooped around, got the manager aside. "Do you know who those fellows are, a bunch of 'cons' from Wala Wala?" "What?" "A bunch of 'cons.' from Wala Wala." "My God," he said, "What am I going to do? They are all registered." Well, they got their heads together and the first thing you know the corridors were just jammed with plain clothes men. They had all the different floors carefully watched and they tried to keep it from the guests. They didn't want to start a panic or stampede, as they call it in the West, and they were all nervous. That manager must have lost several pounds during the evening. Well, after supper those boys, two or three bunches of four or five, went out to see the sights. Some went to motion picture shows, some to the writing room just as ordinary people in a strange city. Bedtime came and they went to bed. They had to get up early in the morning because the steamer leaving Seattle sailed early, so in the morning they got up and had their breakfast. One of the boys who had the money for the hotel expenses went to the desk and said, "We are going. Thank you very much for your kindnesses." The manager replied, "Not at all." Then they all came up and said good-bye and picked up their bundles and walked out. Those bleary-eyed detectives who had been standing watch all night stood in the corridor and in the center of them was the manager who kept looking at them until the last one passed through the door. "Phew! well I'll be damned." Then the funny side of it appealed to him and he broke out in a laugh and he laughed, and finally the rest of them

laughed, "Why," he says, "they are just the same as anybody else, only a little more considerate for the management of the hotel "

Now, this steamer going up the sound had already been notified to be on the lookout for a bunch of "cons" going up to the Honor Camp. The captain had never seen a convict in his life, being a seafaring man, and began to get nervous, but, shrewd man that he was, he said that he would not sail, fearing these fellows might take his steamer and turn her into a pirate's craft, and break out into the Pacific ocean, and goodness knows where, until he put in an order for a half a dozen rifles, a good complement of six-shooters and ammunition, which he stocked in his cabin, and made a regular fort out of it.

The boys all filed on the steamer, and, of course, naturally, just like children with a new toy, they were all full of curiosity. Some of these men had not been outside of the walls in years. They would come up and ask the captain for permission to stand up near the pilot house so they could see the bow of the boat cut the water. That was where the artillery was located, and he thought they were naturally trying to crowd up there so they could gather and rush on him, but he looked out of the window and said, "Sure, boys, that is all right." Well, he had his troubles. Night came, and they all went into their different berths and slept. Next morning one after another came out of the cabins, and still the steamer was heading up towards Huds canal, and nothing happened. They all bid the captain good-bye when they left the steamer at Hudspert. The captain told me this story himself, and said: "Do you know, when those boys left the steamer, I felt so mean, so low and so cruel. The least one of that body of men was a gentleman in comparison to myself." He says, "It was the best thing that ever happened to me. It did me more good than all the sermons that I have ever heard preached." He said, "There is not one of those boys of that grading camp along the shore of Puget Sound but that would do anything for me. I have carried messages for them, brought them packages every trip. They look for me; I see their

signals when I round the bend of the point below, and I have never had such friends."

The same thing occurred in the little village. Here was a little community of about thirty-five families. The anxious mothers got their little girls away, and those who could not afford to send their children away armed themselves. The boys went down there, pitched their tents, started camp, and went to work. They would come up to the postoffice and inquire for mail. They would catch fish and exchange commodities. They would go hunting on Sundays and bring in a pair of deer, and share with the villagers. On Saturday nights they would go up to the dances and mingle in with the life of the village. So it went, and the Honor System was accepted. The strongest champions of the Honor System are those people that had the greatest fears when the boys first came into their midst.

Unfortunately, our Honor System does not include the working management of the institution. It is only when men are sent outside of the jurisdiction of the reservation, but when they go out there I wish to assure you that they go without any firearms or guards to watch them. The result of this new experiment has justified those who dared to champion it. In the introduction of the Honor System we hope it will govern other institutions as well as the State's Prison, and that it will be in such a way that it will mean exactly what the word says, "Honor."

Now, I have been told that right here in your own State you have made some attempt to introduce the Honor System, but I have been informed that the guards carry firearms. That is not right, impossible. It is irreconcilable ever to expect a man to live up to such a trust when he knows that you have got a gun in your pocket ready and waiting to shoot him if he dares to break the faith. It is an incentive to break faith. Some of our critics claim that we are trying to turn these public institutions into hotels and summer resorts, but I wish to tell you that the more freedom you accord a human being under such conditions the severer the punishment is. You can extend to him every privilege yet deny him one thing, the right to be a free acting agent, and you make him feel his punishment a thousand times

more than all the torture machines that have ever been devised by the hellish ingenuity of the human being who wants to inflict pain on another.

I will cite you my own experience. When I entered the prison it was on a terrible charge, train robbery. That was awful, horrible, and they classify you according to the crime, never taking into consideration the individual at all. Anyhow, I was classed as a robber, and I was run through the system. They never asked me whether I could read or write. I was never given a physical examination or any of those necessary things, just started right in. They thought, "Well, now, the first thing we must do with this fellow is to break his spirit, and then he will be a good dog." That is what they call a good prisoner, a model prisoner. I happened to be one of those kind that would not break easily, and the result was "Hell started to pop," as they say, from the day I entered the institution until they classified me as the most notorious prisoner, with the exception of one, in the history of that State. I was dubbed incorrigible, and at last they put me away by sentence of the court to be confined for the balance of my life in darkness.

You can understand what that means when I tell you the cell was four and one-half feet wide by eight and one-half feet long, a straw tick and two blankets, a paper drinking bowl and a flour sack for a towel. That is all, and during the five years that I remained in that condition I never had a haircut, shave or a bath. The door of my cell was not opened in thirty-six months after I stepped inside. That sentence was for life. Well, the story is too long to tell you how I changed all those conditions, but one day I found myself the ruler of the prison, head trusty; that is, I had the keys of all the prison in my care. During all those years previous to my experience as head trusty I had nothing else to do but concoct schemes, plot escape, with the one idea of getting liberty. During the four years as trusty I never suffered, the time never dragged, and I was busy from early morning until late at night, yet every day seemed like a month in comparison with what I suffered during those previous years. All I would need to have done at any time would be to walk right away, but there

was a prison holding me stronger than those iron bars and walls, and that was my word of honor as a man. I believe that I could go into any of your institutions, I don't care where, and take from fifty to seventy-five per cent. of the men in there and put them on their honor and turn them loose, and the major portion of those men would make good.

Do you know what the attitude of the man behind the walls is towards society? He very seldom tells you the truth, you know. You go and ask any prisoner in an institution and he will lie to you. Of course he will. I would, anybody would. Why shouldn't he? There is nothing in common between him and you. The attitude or the concept of the man behind the walls is just the same as your concept of him. You imagine that he is a brutal, low-browed, lop-eared, stone-age human, and from the cradle up you have been allowed to form the concept of a man with a bald head, shaved clean, a striped suit, running, fleeing, and a man with a rifle shooting to stop him. That is your concept, try to hide it how you will.

Now, then, the concept of the man behind the walls in regard to you is just the same, only one of amusement to think that you would have such a poor understanding of him as a human being, and that you think he is bad and yet he has to live. Many times he is perfectly harmless, and outside of the professional criminals, which represent about ten per cent. of the prison population, and belong in psychopathic hospitals or sanitariums instead of being punished behind walls, might be released on honor. This has just lately begun to dawn upon us, and I believe that the new treatment in the new management of our institutions will demonstrate that we are right.

Now, if you should ask me how I would handle institutions, how I would handle the criminal question, I would make it very simple indeed. I would do away with all sentences. I would try to ascertain the cause of why the prisoner was in court. After that was satisfactorily determined I would send him to the proper institution for observation first. The first man who would handle him would be a physician or surgeon to look him over and examine him from head to foot. The next man would be

the psychologist, and then the alienist, and then the expert on proper training for the hand and eye, and it would make no difference whether the offense was a petty larceny or robbery. The idea of sending him to that institution was to find out what was wrong with him, and when you ascertain that fact apply the remedy, if it takes two months or two years, and then put him out where he would become efficient and self-supporting. Thus you do away with the harshness of sentence, where one man is sentenced for two years and a boy alongside of him, generally handcuffed, for twenty years for the same offense. The man for two years might be an eleventh timer and the boy might be from a country district, where a judge who had no idea of what he was doing gave him twenty years. We do away with all those things. That would simplify it, but the nearest we can get to that now is the indeterminate sentence law. Let's work for that, and when you introduce the indeterminate sentence law in conjunction with parole I think that you will be in a fair way to solve the problem in your State.

Do you know that the State of New Jersey is one of the most fortunate States in the Union? You are the representative people of this State, you are here for a serious purpose. You want to find out why and then go ahead. I am speaking to you this evening not to tell you what we are doing in the west, but to bring to you the benefit of what has been accomplished, so that you will apply it to your conditions here. You have the greatest opportunity of any State in the Union. I have visited your institutions since I have been in the east. At the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg I found six or seven hundred little tots, every one of them representing little dynamoes of energy. I must compliment the people of this State in regard to the conditions of that institution. Everything was just as good, if not better, than in any other institution of its kind that I have visited in this country, but, in whispering around among those children, I don't know why it is, but there seems to be some subtle, sub-conscious condition that allows one to get under the armor plate of a little boy, if you know how to do it—I have a peculiar faculty for that, I suppose it is because I was denied childhood. In

creeping around among those little fellows, there was one little chap sitting down at the table with his feet up on the rungs of his little stool who kept watching me for a long time. I was standing alongside of Mr. Chandler, and the fellow was doing what they call trying to get my goat. He kept staring at me for the longest while, and finally he closed down one eye like this; I suppose he must have held that eye shut for a minute. That didn't bring me. He turned and shut the left eye, turned right like that. That didn't seem to phase me, so he shut both eyes, but I could see just a little screen between his dark eyelashes, and finally I gave the response. I winked like that. He broke out in a laugh, and all the other boys looked at him and could not figure out what he was laughing at. So I went around and talked to those little children saying, "How long have you been here, Jack?" "Oh, so long." "Why, a second-timer?" "Yes." "What did you come back the second time for?" "Oh, so and so." Imagine the shame of a little child having that impressed upon his memory—that he was a convict.

Then I went to the next place, to the Trenton State Prison. The minute I stepped inside of the portals of that prison I got the atmosphere, the air of suppression, and when I looked into the faces of those prisoners the story was plain. It has no place in your enlightened community, and I ask you people to see to it that you remove that old pile of stone. It would be impossible to resist the blighting influences of such an institution.

Then I went to the Rahway Reformatory. I found six or seven hundred young men there in charge of a gentleman who is here this evening, I believe, Dr. Moore. To my pleasure I was extended the privilege of speaking to those boys, so I spoke a few minutes and I found conditions there of peace and harmony. I didn't smell that atmosphere, so typical of your prison, of suppression. The doctor took me all around the institution. He started me through the shops. He had a series of shops in line, where work was started and kept following it right on until it came out the other end a finished article. I was amazed at everything. When we landed back in the rotunda or corridor of the institution he turned to me and said, "Well, Morrell, what do

you think of it?" I said, "Doctor, I am astonished. It is wonderful, but there is just one thing." "What is it?" "Those bars or cell houses." I said, "Doctor, this is a prison. Your place is by rights a school." He said, "I know it." "Why don't you get rid of it? Why don't you bring those prisoners from Trenton up here, bring them up here and put them into this place which is more in accord with the older offenders?" I will go down there and bring them up for you myself; yes, I will. I will undertake to bring them from Trenton prison and I will guarantee that there will not be a forearm handcuffed or a leg shackled, and I will bring every one of them up from Trenton and they will step inside of the bars at Rahway, and then we will see what the Doctor will do with his boys.

I have only a few words about Sing Sing. I know there are many of you people who are desirous of finding out a little of the working of that system up there. They have a Mutual Welfare League—of course, it is the Honor System. You all know what Sing Sing is. Just imagine being into that institution now. Even with its old loathsome cells and the terrible conditions, unsanitary and otherwise, you will find something like the feeling or spirit that exists at the Rahway Reformatory. It all came about by placing those men under a condition of honor, honor towards each other, fair treatment, manly treatment, fair dealing and square dealing, and that was all. Formerly those men would be locked up on Saturday and would be released on Monday morning. Lockup does not take place at Sing Sing now until ten-thirty at night. They are up in the class-room, some of them knitting, some of them drawing, going through their different studies, some of them looking at motion pictures, and some in their cells reading and writing. In the notorious shoeshop where all the strikes and where all the bad conditions were they have turned out all the harness boys with their clubs. There is only one free man, and that man is appointed by the prisoners themselves, and the output of the shoeshop has increased nearly fifty-five per cent. That is what honor does.

Now, another thing I have noticed for years in prisons, under the old suppressive system, that when the prisoners were locked

up on Saturday night and only released on Monday morning to go to work that it was on Monday morning that all the murders usually took place. All the assaults, all the insubordinations happened then. Monday was the day that the dungeon would be usually jammed full. Observing that during the years of my incarceration, I made a study of other institutions and found that Monday was the bad day, showing that feelings of bitterness would be engendered during those hours of confinement. Since those conditions have been reversed, such a thing as a murder is unheard of in those institutions.

The same condition that governs the world must finally govern our institutions. We must entertain an attitude of love towards those unfortunate men and when they understand the power of love they will respond. I believe that that is the only punishment that we should inflict upon a human being, the punishment of love. I thank you kindly. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—Before introducing the next speaker I want to put in a word in self-defense. I don't mind criticism of the New Jersey State Prison. It ought to be criticised, but don't go away with this in your mind from the remark of the previous speaker: that it is a dirty place, because it is not. If it is one thing, we keep it sanitary, I mean so far as it is physically possible to do so, but the prison has outlived its usefulness. I don't defend it as a satisfactory institution. We are doing the best we can with the material at hand.

A DELEGATE—Why don't you give them more light to read by in the evening and dark days?

THE CHAIRMAN—I am very glad you brought up that subject. It is indefensible that we do not give them more light, and I don't defend it at all. I don't mind being heckled, but I want to say here, it is possibly more or less well known that I have been somewhat the obstreperous member of the Board of Inspectors so far as the relationship between the principal keeper and the Board of Inspectors is concerned. I have publicly criticised that gentleman. What I have said I have no reason to regret. I don't feel, though, in an audience like this that I should

go any further into the subject unless the gentleman is here with the opportunity to answer back.

The next speaker is a gentleman it gives me a great deal of pleasure to introduce because of a feeling of personal fondness for him, and also a personal knowledge of what he has done in this State and what he sought to accomplish, and I know you will all join with me in saying to our new Commissioner of Charities and Corrections that if he can go out of office with as good a record as our next speaker left behind him, he can consider, himself, that he has done a very good work for this State.

Mr. Byers is the son of the late Reverend Byers, who was, I believe, the first chaplain in the Ohio Prison, and his father left a record that was an incentive to his son, and I have here to say that the son certainly emulated the example of his father. I take great pleasure in introducing to you your former Commissioner of Charities and Correction, Mr. Joseph P. Byers. (Applause.)

Discussion.

JOSEPH P. BYERS, TRENTON.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen and friends: It is always difficult to live up to a reputation that one inherits from his father. I think it must have been an inspiration that came to me this afternoon, for about half past three it occurred to me that if I came to New Brunswick this evening it was incumbent upon me to begin to get ready to say at least a few words. The inspiration was that I was likely to be introduced about as I have been introduced, that your Chairman of the evening was just likely to make such a remark as he did make in opening the meeting, and that during the course of the evening there was likely to be very great provocations to me to talk and to say some things that, while possibly they ought to be said, they might more becomingly be said by someone else. So under the circumstances I felt it would be safer for me and safer for you if I jotted down a few things that I thought I might safely

say to you. I have been wondering while the speaking was going on whether I ought to read them or not. A second sober thought is that it will be best for me to read what I have prepared, and it won't take more than five minutes.

[Mr. Byers' notes were lost or misplaced. He, however, reiterated the necessity for a change at Trenton.—*Ed.*]

THE CHAIRMAN—The next speaker, a Methodist minister, was so successful on the pulpit that he was called to take charge of a co-educational institution, where he continued to be a success, and there obtained such a State-wide reputation that he was called to the College of Rahway, where he has made a wonderful success, a success that is now becoming nation-wide. It gives me a great deal of pleasure to introduce Dr. Frank Moore.

DR. FRANK MOORE (Rahway)—Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: We ought to pray to be saved from our predecessors and our ancestors. The words that I have to say will take but a few moments. I want to say that I am glad to be associated with this Conference, in spite of the fact that many of the members of this Conference are looked upon as theorists, highbrows, philanthropists, and all that sort of thing, and yet there is a vision in this Conference, and without a vision we can accomplish nothing, so it seems to me it is an honor to be one among you.

I feel as if I would like to say a lot of things of about fifty-seven different varieties, but there is not time for that. I have enjoyed the remarks of Mr. Morrell. He came to the reformatory and spoke to our boys, got them by the ears figuratively, pulled them out of their seats and showed them how they might get the better of themselves and so conquer.

When he was through I simply had to arise to my feet and say, "Boys, he is not the only pebble on the beach. What he can do you fellows can do." And now he comes as an example to us to show that it is worth while to try and do something for the man who unfortunately gets behind the bars. Now, what can we do in our State to make our work better than it has been? I stand for the suggestion that we ought to bring our State's Phison to

Rahway and we ought to build a new reformatory. For this reason our prison is not, as we have heard to-night, what it ought to be, and to require the warden of the prison and the Prison Board of Inspectors to do good work with that kind of a plant is wrong. The State of New Jersey has no right to demand good work of them until they give them good tools with which to work.

No more can a warden do good work or a prison official without good tools to work with than can an artisan do a good job without he has good tools. Now the same thing is true, only to a less extent, of the reformatory. Our institution is an ideal prison, but it is not an ideal reformatory. We take a young man in there and we lock him up at night behind bars, and we want to show in the pictures that we have brought, as an actual demonstration of this subject, the kind of bars that our young men, first offenders, have to be locked behind at night, and the psychological consequence of this is that the boy says, when he stands behind those bars, "Maybe I am a criminal. I am like one at least, I am locked up behind bars. Perhaps I am one. I guess I am one. I am one." That is the natural thing, and it makes it hard to convince that young man that we are really looking for his reform rather than his punishment.

Now, with those two facts in mind, let us look at the practical side of the problem. The reformatory with its shops, with its modern buildings, well ventilated, with its one hundred and eighteen acres of ground, and the possibility of acquiring more, would make an ideal prison. With the addition of one wing, built by reformatory labor at a cost of a hundred thousand dollars, it would accommodate every prisoner who is in Trenton or will be there after the road work and the admirable farm colony at Leesburg are developed.

Now the building of a new reformatory by inmate labor could be accomplished, giving a better institution, better equipped and better adapted to reformatory ideas by the inmates at a cost not to exceed six hundred thousand dollars. By the selling of the property at Trenton, as some have estimated, at approximately two hundred thousand dollars, there would be left a balance of

five hundred thousand dollars, an expenditure which would not have to be appropriated all at once. It could be appropriated over a period of perhaps four to five years, and it would, therefore, not be a great burden upon the State treasury at any one time, and the result would be that New Jersey would have two new up-to-date institutions, an up-to-date prison, and an up-to-date reformatory. In construction there is not an up-to-date reformatory in the world of all the reformatories, because the early reformers hedged, they believed in the theory, but conservatives got around them and said to them, "you can't do this thing." Thirty-seven years ago it was hard for them to believe that they could do the thing on honor that we now do. Consequently they played the game safe and they built their reformatories with bars and locks, and so we have everywhere institutions which have the name of reformatories but in their construction they really are prisons. New Jersey, therefore, has the chance not only to have a prison of which it will be proud, but it has the chance under this plan to take the most advanced steps in construction of a reformatory that have yet been taken in the United States.

Now there have been some things done, and this makes us feel that we can accomplish this plan even though it seems to be a very great thing. For example, we have accomplished the payment of wages to the man who is in prison. This year's Legislature has made an appropriation to the reformatory by which we can now pay wages to those who earn wages behind the prison bars, and that is only one step. They have now given us a working rotary capital, by which we can buy things and put it back and buy over again and have the money with which to do business, and not only is that provided, but it is provided also that out of that working capital there shall be retained by the prison, at the State's prison and at the reformatory at Rahway, that which is necessary to pay wages to the young men who earn the wages in the production of the things that are used in the State-use system.

I want to say one word in defense of the State-use system. Mr. Dear, my good friend, and myself differ on that question.

I claim this, that while it is to be lamented that perhaps some of the prisoners in the State Prison may be required to make underwear, yet it is better for them to make underwear under the supervision of the right kind of officials in the prison than it is for them to make underwear under the supervision of some mercenary contractor who goes in there and pays a mere pittance for their labor, and runs a sweatshop and compels them to make underwear in order to make him rich and for nothing else. There is a certain type of those who come within the law who can do that sort of thing. It is no harm to them, because of their lack of mental ability, that they should be required to do it. While on the other hand the State-use system gives the prisoner at the reformatory a chance to make such products, as you will see in some pictures that are going to be thrown on the screen, by which the men in prison learn the rudiments at least of a trade and can go out and make themselves successful in life. That is the value of the State-use system, and it at the same time provides a market, while it gives the men a better kind of work.

Now, then, I want to say that we feel we want your sympathy in this State-use work. One other word and I am through. With regard to our whole problem, our whole attitude toward the man who comes within the law, it seems to be the attitude of friendliness, it is to be the attitude of the Son of God to the sons of man, who when he came said, "I have not called you servants, but I have called you friends," and when we assume that attitude we make them not the enemies of society but the friends of society.

I love to say to the young man when he goes out on parole, as I shake hands with him, leaving him at the door as he launches out toward his terrible task of making good in the world, "That is the hand that I want to extend to you always, the open hand, the hand of a friend. The thumb is the law, and I am an officer of the law, and have to do my duty. The first finger is bad company, and I want you to promise me that you will not go in bad company. The second finger is stealing, and I want you to promise me that you won't do that. The next finger is drink,

and I want you to promise me you won't drink, and the next finger is not leaving your position without my consent. Now as long as you keep those four promises the superintendent is your friend. If you break down on those four promises then my duty is to apply the law, to reach out and bring you back and undertake this work over again, but if that hand ever breaks down, you have broken it down, the hand that is mine that I want to always extend to you is the hand of a friend." And I believe that we will never do our work successfully until, in addition to the equipment we get that spirit. The poet of the West I think expressed it when he said:

"Tain't so far from right to wrong;
The trail ain't hard to lose.
There's times I'd give my hoss to know
Which way to choose.
There ain't no guides or sign-posts up
To keep us on the track.
There's times when wrong
Looks white as driven snow
And white looks awful black.
I ain't no judge of right and wrong in man—
I've lost the track myself
And may get lost again.
And so whene'er I see a chap
As looks as tho' he'd gone astray
I want to shove my hand in his
And help him find the way." (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—I don't know just exactly what Sheriff Heath, our next speaker, is going to talk about. He comes from a very fine jail, so my friend Stonaker says, and I believe Stonaker has visited all the jails in the State. I take great pleasure in introducing to you Sheriff Robert N. Heath.

ROBERT N. HEATH, SHERIFF, OF HACKENSACK.

The sheriffs of this State don't seem to be on the job, in fact they don't seem to be in the majority of States, and I don't know that I am. Dr. Moore has a wonderful institution in Rahway,

and I doubt if there is anything better in the world. I will later show one or two of his pictures. I want to explain to you how and why I have those slides. We had an old county jail in Hackensack, a jail that was one of those dismal dark dungeons. We got rid of it and have a new six-hundred-thousand-dollar jail in its place, but before it was completed the money ran short. They could not put in sanitary drains. It was necessary for me to make these slides and go throughout our county and appeal to the public and tell them what the inmates of my institution were not getting which they should have. I finally succeeded in interesting some ladies. I went over the heads of the Board of Freeholders. We are governed in that county by a board of thirty-two freeholders. Of that thirty-two freeholders there is not one among them who knows anything about governing a jail. The county jails will not and cannot be corrected until we wipe out the old Boards of Freeholders and govern our counties with commissions of five or seven men, with only one man responsible for the county jail. When we get that commission, with one man we can get the corrections that we should have.

What I should like to say to you to-night goes a little before the county jail. I want to get the man before he comes to the county jail. The Constitution of the State says that each township is entitled to not less than two and not more than five justices of the peace. We have in the county of Bergen one hundred and twenty-five justices of the peace, and there are at least seventy-five of them that do not know the first thing about their duties. The consequence is that a big policeman runs in with a foreigner that cannot speak the English language, and he wants this man arrested. This man has committed a crime. He wants the commitment made out to read so and so, and he gets it, and that man goes to jail and is locked up for some time, and the grand jury hear nothing but the policeman's story; the man is indicted, and he is brought up before the Common Pleas judge, and there he has an interpreter and the man is acquitted, costing the county from two hundred and fifty to five hundred dollars; and why? Because we have a justice of the peace who

does not know his business. Now it is time steps were taken to correct that. Here is the first step, in my mind, in prison reform. What have we done to correct it? We have called them together at least four times and we have found some of them hungry for the information that we want them to learn; others claim they can't get it. They are elected justices of the peace, throw their chests out, and claim to be judges of the town. They are men of education, men of wealth, or men of color. They are all elected justices of the peace. It is hard work sometimes to get a man to run, but if they can't get anybody else they will put somebody on the ticket as a joke. We have formed an organization of justices of the peace, who are to meet regularly, with lawyers to instruct them in their duties. We are going to appeal to the Legislature for fees sufficiently large to warrant a man in learning his duties, and until we get that we are not going to get the needed prison reforms in the county jail.

The second reform, as I mentioned, would be to govern the jails by a commission, and the third is to make it so hard for the offender who comes in from New York to commit a crime and get away with it, that he will keep out of the county and go elsewhere.

Now, what have we done to correct this? Instead of having six municipalities calling us out of bed night after night to get in our automobile and make trips probably ten, fifteen or eighteen miles to get somebody who committed a burglary, murder or something else, we now have each of these boroughs interested to such an extent that they have appointed one man to come to Hackensack to enter in and to join the interlocking police system, and that one man is taught his duties and just exactly what is expected of him as an officer, and he goes back and teaches the other men. We are making it hard for the criminal in Bergen county, and there are very few of them that are getting away.

Sheriff Heath then showed some interesting pictures of jail conditions in Bergen county and how some of the bad conditions had been rectified.

Dr. Moore also showed some pictures of Rahway Reformatory.

Tuesday Morning, April 27th, 1915, 10 O'clock.

"Public and Private Relief."

FREDERICK W. DONNELLY, MAYOR OF TRENTON, CHAIRMAN.

MR. STONAKER—Ladies and gentlemen: It is a pleasure to me to introduce to you Frederick W. Donnelly, Mayor of Trenton, who will preside over the session this morning.

THE CHAIRMAN—Ladies and gentlemen: I have been honored by being asked to preside at this meeting to-day—a meeting called to fulfill a very laudable purpose. During my short career in public life, I know of no one subject which has been more interesting to me than the study of public and private relief, and I am sure that there is no greater opportunity in the whole curriculum of municipal study than this great subject.

In Trenton we have been unusually successful in broadening the scope of our charity work, and this has been immeasurably due to the business system of government which we now have in vogue. We have lots to be proud of in Trenton. Even before the adoption of the commission form of government we, as a city, were in better circumstances than the average second class city of New Jersey. Immediately after our citizens decided upon an upheaval of old conditions and the substitution therefor of Trenton's present governing body, we set about to place our house in order.

Since 1911 we have regulated and systematized the finances and accounts of our municipal departments. Whereas prior to that time it was impossible for a taxpayer to receive a comprehensive statement of the city's financial condition we now point proudly to a modern system of accounting whereby the exact status of the city's resources and liabilities can be given to an inquirer at a moment's notice. Our debts have been for a great part wiped out; by that I mean the debts that were illegitimately

contracted, not through the fault of our predecessors, but caused by the obsolete system under which they were forced to govern the municipality. Savings that aggregate a half million dollars have been made possible through the policy of retrenchment which has been the keynote of our administration. Current expenses have been reduced more than \$85,000 annually, due entirely to a regard for business methods. Every department has established the commendable precedent of paying as it goes, thus preventing a repetition of a deplorable condition that existed when we took office—every department was facing a deficit, whereas to-day it is literally impossible for any department to incur a deficit, because their books form a mirror which reflects the exact state of their financial conditions.

With expenditures of nearly two million dollars in permanent improvements during the last three and a half years; with the onerous work of reconstructing the city; with the addition of fifty new policemen and two new fire companies, and the complete rehabilitation of both departments, the establishment of new schools, and the strengthening of our entire educational system, and with divers other innovations, including a filtration plant, five miles of improved waterfront for park and commercial purposes, the construction of municipal docks and wharves, the expanding of playgrounds, increased neighborhood park places, many miles of improved streets, a modernly equipped municipal colony, the opening of a tuberculosis clinic, a modern dispensary, open-air classrooms for anæmic children, a revived health department, etc., Trenton is to-day occupying a position in the opinion of experts who have carefully studied the situation the reputation of standing foremost in everything that goes to make up a progressive municipality among cities of one hundred thousand population in the United States.

All of these accomplishments have followed in rapid succession without the slightest indication of partisan politics being injected into the actions of the Commission. Notwithstanding that our Board comprises three Democrats and two Republicans, fully ninety per cent. of the important officeholders of the municipal government are of the latter political faith, thus unmis-

takably proving that the minority representatives on the Commission are in no way embarrassed by partisan politics. With nearly four years of management under commission rule, our Board has still to take its first partisan vote.

The Poor Department of the City of Trenton was similar to most departments of cities governed by a system of political control. It was a political office directed by a genuine politician. It represented an invisible system that was unintelligible to anyone except the Overseer. The aim of the office was to favor the organization rather than to study the relief of the indigent. But this condition has been entirely eradicated. No longer are poor orders for \$2.00 a week issued promiscuously from the Poor Department to people who own pianos; no longer are these orders being bartered by unscrupulous petitioners for furs and clothes, and sundry other articles that were obtained from installment houses. The system has been reorganized so that a check has been put on all those conditions that existed before. Instead of one man being in charge of the department, as in the past, to-day we have three men. We have the Overseer of the Poor who looks after the legal end of the work, and supervises the department in general; a clerk; also a field man who has had some experience in social work and is rendering excellent assistance. Our records are the most complete you can find anywhere. Careful study and survey is made of not only the subject, but the subject's family and his surroundings; an inventory is made of his home so far as possible. The opinions of the neighbors, corner grocer, clergyman and the policeman of that district are also secured. The indolent who are capable of doing something for themselves have been sent to work. We have an employment bureau, but that has not worked out as successfully as it might, as yet, but more attention is going to be given to it, and I believe that it will eventually help to solve the problem of poverty in Trenton to some extent.

We have in our Poor Department men of the right spirit and right heart who are interested in the work, who are not politicians and who are trying their best to put unfortunate men and women on their feet again. The custom of sending children for poor

orders has been abolished. If conditions warrant it, the orders are delivered to the house by the fieldman.

We had at the time when we changed our form of government a dispensary that consisted of a table and towel that had been hanging there a year by the looks of it, and a stock of prescription blanks. The prescriptions, as a rule, cost from fifty to eighty cents according to what was required, from favored druggists. That was about all the relief they got. To-day that is substituted by a modern dispensary, as well equipped as you will find in any of the large hospitals, and a stock of drugs. We have three City Physicians instead of two, and a Welfare Nurse who manages the dispensary work along the most modern lines. The institution of a welfare nurse was made possible through the agitation of the Mercer County Tuberculosis and Sanitation League. This league demonstrated to the city the necessity of a welfare nurse. It furnished the nurse for the first two years, but recently the city has taken over that work, and to-day is planning to put more welfare nurses and sanitary inspectors in service as we clearly see the necessity for the follow-up work.

We had a poorhouse in the city of Trenton that served its purpose for forty-six years. Apparently, from the outside, it looked very attractive, but the interior was not fit to keep human beings in, and we did what we could to put the place in condition. It had outlived its usefulness. Even under commission government, at first, it was considered bad judgment to spend money for the poor, but, after a great deal of agitation, we designed plans for a modernly equipped Home for the Aged, which was constructed, and now forms an important part of our Municipal Colony. After another battle of agitation, we succeeded in building this colony, about three miles from the city proper. Previous to that time we had nothing on these grounds but an old smallpox hospital, known as the pesthouse, which has since been modernized and turned into one of the best adapted Tuberculosis Hospitals to be found anywhere, and I have visited most of them and know whereof I speak. The entire expense of this improvement did not exceed \$15,000, and the hospital has a capacity of sixty-eight patients.



Home for the Aged and Infirm (Almshouse). Municipal Colony, Trenton.



Nurses' Home, Municipal Colony, Trenton. Grounds kept in order by the inmates of the Home for the Aged and Infirm.

I wish I had a picture of the old hospital, which practically consisted of four walls and nothing more. Now, the porches are all new, as are the sun-parlors. The grounds are beautifully laid out, and we have had nearly five hundred patients there during the past three years and a half, all last-stage cases. Out of that number, one hundred and twenty-seven have been discharged improved. In addition, many were admitted to Glen Gardner after they had been previously rejected. Those who have been discharged who are in the community are being watched through the system of follow-up work.

Another thought in connection with our tuberculosis work: We had two Polish women who went in there about four months ago, both last-stage cases, that Glen Gardner would not accept. Last week, when their second test was made for commitment to Glen Gardner, it was discovered that the cases had been arrested, and the report of the physician showed that they were cured. This really seems preposterous, but it is a fact, nevertheless, that the two women are cured, and if they take care of themselves, they will remain so. They did not have to go to Glen Gardner, but went back to their families, and are two very happy women to-day. There are ten other cases of similar interest which could be related in connection with the splendid work of cures being accomplished in the Hospital.

Adjoining the Tuberculosis Hospital is the "Home for the Aged." We have dropped the name of "poorhouse." I would like to drop it from all phases in municipal life. We have substituted at the Colony, which covers about eighteen acres of land, the "Home for the Aged" and an Infirmary. This is a building that cost us \$40,000. It will house one hundred and fifty people, and is the first unit, which can be added to as time and conditions demand additional hospital accommodations.

The kitchen, serving room, heating arrangements, elevators, and everything are so arranged that we can easily accommodate three or four hundred people by an addition. It is a modest building, furnished substantially and comfortably. The appointments of the building have been looked after very carefully, and an infirmary for chronic diseases which the hospitals of the city

won't admit has been provided for. We have twelve beds for men and twelve for women in the infirmary. They are partly filled now, and could be filled very readily unless we were very careful in selecting our cases so as to provide for the most worthy.

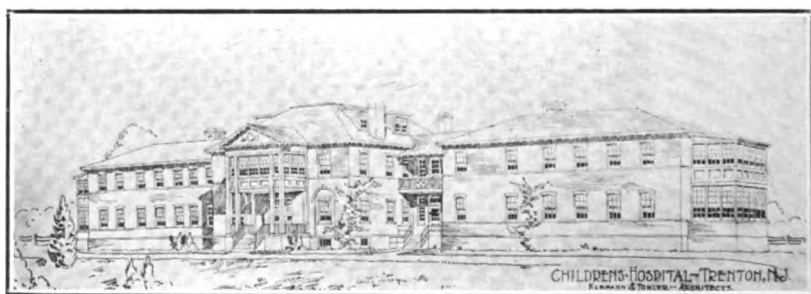
Never before in the city of Trenton did we know what to do with chronics. We had last year fifty-two cancer cases that hospitals would not admit. The city nurses were doing the best they could for them, but existing facilities were wholly inadequate. In addition to the Infirmary and Home for the Aged, we have the Nurses' Home, which is a modern place for the nurses to live in. For a long time some of our nurses were living in the Tuberculosis Hospital, and two contracted the disease while they were there. That unbearable condition has been relieved, and this little home, which sits in the middle of the colony, cost \$7,800. The first floor includes a large living-room, dining-room, kitchen and basement. The second floor has ten bedrooms and two baths, all furnished comfortably. Each room is sufficiently large for a single bed, a chiffonier, table, rocking chair, small chair and a rug. They are all front and back rooms, with plenty of sunlight and air, and constitute as nice a little home as anybody would want to live in.

Now, we also have an Isolation Hospital, which we didn't have before. That has been built in the same colony. At the present time we are building a Children's Hospital on the same grounds. This will house about seventy-five patients. It is of fireproof construction, and when completed will cost about \$38,000. We have many conditions to treat in building this hospital, and have to make provision for contagion, of scarlet fever and diphtheria; the separation of the sexes, the nurses' servants and doctors' quarters, fumigation rooms, and many other considerations that enter into and must be provided for in order to secure satisfactory and proper relief from the spread of scarlet fever and diphtheria among the little ones. There are plenty of sun-parlors and air spaces throughout the building.

The Administration Building in the center contains private rooms, so that a mother who wants to go and rent a room can



Tuberculosis Hospital, Municipal Colony, Trenton.



Children's Hospital, Municipal Colony, Trenton.

make arrangements to do so, or send a private nurse with a child. There is also an additional ward that will hold about ten beds for those patients who can pay something. I anticipate that this building will be partially self-supporting.

It is quite interesting to note in connection with the Tuberculosis Hospital of Trenton that the city runs the hospital instead of the county. We charge the county so much per patient per week, taking care of county tuberculosis patients. The expense of operating the Tuberculosis Hospital last year was seventeen thousand dollars, and the income was a little over eighteen thousand dollars. Quite unusual to see a municipal institution conducted with a profit. Patients from other counties are admitted.

Our Colony also boasts of a modern garage, cow stable and poultry house. We use about two hundred and fifty to three hundred eggs a day and large quantities of milk. In this respect we hope to supply the needs of the Colony.

We also have a well-planned cemetery now for the indigent. In former times they were buried in a field, with no records kept, and in many instances two or three bodies were interred on top of each other. It was a most deplorable condition for a city to contend with. The municipal cemetery of to-day is about a half a mile from the Colony. It is beautifully laid out with walks, shrubbery, trees and driveways. It is on a side road, where an indigent cemetery ought to be, and every grave is marked with a concrete tombstone, with a number on it, and the full record and history of the case are kept at the hospital, as far as possible. The indigent cemetery in five years' time will be one of the prettiest cemeteries in Trenton, because it has been well planned and laid out, and it will be attractive on account of uniformity of the tombstones, planting, etc.

You should have seen the condition of this colony before the improvement was begun. There wasn't anything but old shanties that had served their purpose twenty-five years ago, and an old farmhouse, dilapidated and ramshackle. We thought so much of them that we sent one of the companies of our Fire Department out there one day and burned them down, so as to be sure nobody would get the benefit of anything that was left there, and

to prevent the spread of any contagion that might exist. Now, we are going to hold the formal opening of this Colony on Sunday. I regret that it is so hard to get people interested in the indigent of our cities. You can't get them to see the value of improvements or benefits as a rule, unless it concerns something for their particular neighborhood. We have religious services there Sunday mornings, and on Sunday afternoons we have concerts of a semi-religious nature, and once a week moving pictures. Next Sunday we are going to have a band concert of appropriate music to signalize the official opening, and the people of the city have been invited to go out to see this development. They will be surprised and proud when they do see it, for I want to tell you no city in the country has anything on Trenton when it comes to the Colony scheme. There may be some that are larger or cover a greater area of ground, but there is none more modernly appointed or more attractively designed. The patients of the Colony can't do much work, but we are putting them in condition whereby they can look after a certain part of the lawn, and attend to the grounds, do some trucking, and care for the chickens and cows. To the men who do the best work we will give so much a month, and we are going to put up a prize and divide it among them. Those fellows who work the most earn the right to a small ward bed, on the third floor. They enjoy the privileges of a special table, and get a few extras added to their meals. Through that system we expect to make their lives a little happier by appealing to the good side of their character, and at the same time keep the grounds and buildings constantly in good condition without employing very much help.

We have nurses in both institutions, and we have even gone so far that we have call-bells on the head of each bed, and with the nurses on duty at night, a sufferer doesn't have to wake up the whole ward to call a nurse. I have found that all the so-called paupers have done some sort of service for the community at one time or another. Out of the eighty-two patients that were in the old almshouse in Trenton, all of whom were transferred to the Home for the Aged, there is not one who has not rendered some service to the community. I don't care what it was, there

is something each one had done for the benefit of Trenton. Now they are down and out, either physically or mentally broken up, and are entitled to some consideration. They are human beings; they are worthy; you can get a little out of them, and you can make their life just a little bit happier, a little bit freer, by a little intelligent planning, and it doesn't cost any more in the end. It used to cost \$16,000 to run the almshouse in Trenton under the political administration, and they had nothing to speak of and plenty of filth and vermin. Common council, at one time, held monthly meetings in one of the rooms of the almshouse, where they could get off by themselves and "fix up some things." The cost of running the almshouse now, with all improvements and innovations, is six thousand dollars less than it was under the old conditions.

The cost of operating the whole Colony will not be any greater than it was under the old regime, so you see after all it is not a great expenditure. It is economy as well as efficiency that we have instituted in laying the fundamentals for this part of our social problem of the community of taking care of those who through misfortune, adversity or other causes, are unable to provide for themselves, without administering chloroform to some of them, as has been intimated.

I was asked to tell this story to you to-day, and I have told it as briefly as I could. We have taken our place in Trenton in social work along with the other cities, and, although we have advanced considerably, there is still a great deal to be done. We are now struggling for an associated charities or some sort of an association to stop the waste caused by duplication, etc. I have formulated some opinions of my own regarding the duties of the poor department and what ought to be done. I am rather optimistic in everything pertaining to future municipal and social developments. Perhaps I am looking too far ahead in this matter. If I could have my way about it, the first thing I would do would be to revise all the State laws on the subject of dispensing charity, and I would eliminate the words "almshouse," "pauper" and "poor." The next thing I would do would be to revise the laws so that there would not be such a thing as Over-

seer of the Poor or Poor Department attached to any municipality. I think that is too big a problem for men in public life to handle. It is a serious problem, one that requires a great deal of study and a great deal of thought; more, perhaps, than any other one phase of municipal life. The religious problem is well taken care of; the educational problem is advancing with rapid strides; music, art, literature and everything else have reached the highest pinnacle in the world's history. Men are flying in the air; electricity, steam roads and many other innovations of recent origin have been successfully developed, but nobody yet has gotten anywhere near the point of solving the problem of poverty. However, I believe it can be solved as well as anything else. The trouble is it has never been treated intelligently. It has been a political asset in the community. It is essential that the Overseer of the Poor should be a man trained in social and welfare work, just as much as it is that the Superintendent of Schools should have an intelligent and comprehensive grasp of the accepted methods of modern education. These are the kind of men we must have to study the causes of pauperism intelligently. These are the kind of men we must look forward to in the amalgamating of associated charities. I believe that the solution of the remedy is the creation of a State Commission, the creation of commissions in communities and in counties. Then there must be sufficient money appropriated to properly operate these commissions. The men who are to be employed as social workers should be people trained in sociological work, who should be made to stand a most rigid test under civil service.

I believe we are drifting in that direction, and I believe that the money to finance such a scheme as that I proposed could be raised along very popular lines if you would abolish such a thing as the poll tax, which is a dollar a year, and if you would substitute for it a charity tax or some other tax with a more appropriate name, of at least five dollars a year, to be devoted to charity purposes. When you have done that, you have increased your income five times, and you have created a great fund to be handled by a commission, and to be spent intelligently, for in-

creasing the efficacy of hospital work and the social work of the community. This tax could be equalized so that every individual and family in the community would contribute proportionately to solving this great problem, just the same as they contribute toward the upkeep of the public schools to-day. We are all contributing by our taxes toward education. We want education in social and welfare work to stop the waste that is going on every day in all communities, waste even to-day in our community where a careful supervision is being given to charity work. I say this without any criticism of the men and women who are trying to do this thing through their respective agencies, but the petty jealousy that exists between this organization and that organization, each convinced that it is doing its work to the best possible advantage without entering into a spirit of co-operation, results in an annual waste of thousands of dollars throughout the State. All phases of charity work could be taken up by commissions under conditions as I have suggested.

The idea, as I have expressed it, is only in rough form. but I believe that with modern statutes, and all branches of charities getting together under a correct system, we can get nearer to a solution of this problem, and thus be able to put men and women on their feet, and to correct the many abuses that exist to-day in the present system.

One more thought in connection with the social work. In Trenton I have been a great advocate of large grounds for school purposes. If I could have my way, I would have indelibly written on the statutes of the State of New Jersey that no schoolhouse could be built on a plot of ground that did not contain at least from five to ten acres of land. We have initiated that in Trenton. We are going to build four junior schools. We are going to solve the school problem there and relieve the congestion in our schools. It will take about four years yet to complete it, but we have started the idea, and are carrying it out in the construction of the first Junior High School building. The tract on which the school is being erected contains about ten acres of land. It was formerly the site of the old almshouse. The stigma of the almshouse is gone from the neighborhood; a quarter million in-

vestment is coming back there through the removal of the almshouse, and the increase in ratables will soon pay for the High School. In everything we plan we try to capitalize our assets, to get more money to do business with.

We are carrying out the idea of making these junior schools of use to the community every day and night of the year. It consists of a building that will accommodate about sixteen hundred children. The front part or library is separated or divorced from the main building so it can be heated or lighted without operating and opening up the whole building, and that will be the public library for that particular section of the city. The other side contains an auditorium, which is also separated from the building, and can be heated and lighted independent of the rest of the building. That will be for the use of the public every day and night of the year, if they want it, as well as the library. Gymnasiums for boys and girls have been arranged so they can be used day and night, and on the roof of the gymnasium we will have an open-air classroom. Work shops are also a part of the plan.

Now, the idea does not only include the educational value which will result, but also plans some amusement for that community. I am one of those who believe that the solution of the vice question depends immeasurably on the substitution of decent amusements which are to take the place of the neighborhood vices, and it can come through the medium of the public schools, with proper use of them under proper supervision. With that idea in mind, we are building this school and planning for the others. It should be the home of concerts, not those stiff affairs where they sit around all dressed up with all the fine clothes they have, but neighborhood concerts that will afford recreation for the people of the community. There could be dancing, so the young people of the neighborhood can dance under proper supervision. In short, we must provide substitutes for all prevailing unsavory conditions, and when we have done that, in my mind, we will have made a step forward toward the solution of the vice question. We not only want to relieve poverty and vice, but also eradicate the conditions which cause

them, and thus get rid of the stigma of the almshouse, the pauper and social evils, and all that sort of thing, if we are going to look upon ourselves as intelligent people, and be a community that has lived to accomplish something for the advancement of humanity.

It was my desire in Trenton to have a woman as Overseer of the Poor. You don't get everything you go after in public life. You slip sometimes, and that is one thing I missed. I had a most wonderful woman selected to be Overseer of the Poor in Trenton, a trained social worker, but we had not advanced far enough, and our people did not see it, and the struggle was useless, so I gave it up. Women have won out in other cities in New Jersey, and I want to say, as long as I am speaking of the Overseer of the Poor of Trenton—he is here to-day himself—that we found a man who is competent, a man who is painstaking, who is making good, and no criticism can be directed at him. I am very well pleased with him. He is a man of heart, conscience and good judgment, a man who is doing good work in his office.

Jersey City was very fortunate in getting a woman to look after the relief work, and they tell me over there that this young lady doesn't want to be known as the Overseer of the Poor. She doesn't like that word. She is the Superintendent of the Department of Municipal Relief. Now, that sounds pretty good, and I am going to call on Miss Grish now to explain her version of the charity question.

Discussion—"Public Relief from Viewpoint of Overseer of the Poor."

MISS ANITA GRISH, SUP'T OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, JERSEY CITY, N. J.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: Mayor Donnelly has told you practically the same situation that I faced when I came to take charge of things in Jersey City on January 1st, 1914. I also found an office that was tied up in politics, no records of any kind, people paying \$25.00 rent, buying pianos on the installment plan, and receiving help from the Poor Fund, and the

first four months was spent in weeding out some of these cases that had been on the books of the poormaster for years. After that had been accomplished we were able to undertake some constructive work. I was fortunate in having worked with Miss Perine, the present Secretary of the Organized Aid Association, while I was in charge of that society some five years ago, and we decided to divide our work, and co-operate closely. Our office has since then specialized on cases of non-support, as these are the real problems of the community. The family who has had illness or hard luck and is in temporary trouble can be handled by the Associated Charities, but you cannot do much with a man who will not support his family unless you can say to him, "We are going to give you one more chance, and if you fail to make good we will take you before the court and force you to look after your family." The magistrates of the police courts have been splendid in working with us, and we have made arrangements so that every woman who makes a complaint of non-support against a man is first sent to our office. We give the case a preliminary hearing, and in more than half of the five hundred cases that passed through our hands we were able to settle matters without taking the family to court. In this way the courts did not have to listen to family quarrels, and decide petty questions that came up, and we practically had our finger on the non-support cases of the community. The probation officers work with us, and we have been successful in getting work for applicants, as employers feel that we keep such close watch over our non-supporting husbands that they just must behave themselves.

Another problem that concerns the Department of Public Charity is that of the old couples who are unable to care for themselves. Mayor Donnelly has told you of the work he had in reorganizing the almshouse. We have a splendidly-run almshouse, but we do need a place where we can send old couples so they can be together. We are able to settle a great many problems of this kind because we can say to sons and daughters, "You must take care of your parents," but there are some aged people who have no one, and they are better cared

for in an institution. It is very difficult to force people to separate after they have lived together, and suffered together, for fifty years.

I have never had to go through that very trying period of having to become acquainted with the Associated Charities because Miss Perine was my assistant at one time, and naturally there has not been the least bit of friction. We are in constant communication with each other, and talk over our work, and compare records to see how we can best help these families and make them self-supporting. The overseers are usually not interested in family problems, and feel they have done their duty in giving the necessary relief, or committing a few people to the almshouse. At present the Associated Charities are needed, but personally I feel that each city should undertake to do its work along these lines. The next best thing to do is to keep in close touch with the Associated Charities, and that I am glad to say Jersey City is doing.

THE CHAIRMAN—I may say to Miss Grish and the ladies present, we have also planned to take care of the aged couples, but we have so few of them at the present time that we find it more economical to keep them home and have the nurses go and clean them up and take care of them. There is, however, a section being reserved in the cottage for old couples.

MR. STONAKER—My position as Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, of course, puts me in touch with the overseers all over the State, and I want to rise right here now and defend them. I don't want them to be taken this way because I do not think it is fair. These overseers of the poor are not trained public speakers. There are several of them here, and I would like to have them talk, but they have just begged me not to mention their names or call them out. The overseers of the poor in New Jersey are struggling to get on, and I want you to realize that the rural community with its small population has one problem, and another municipality of a larger size has another problem. You will understand the great variety to this work. There are also many confusing things as relates to the law.

Mr. Bishop, of Florence, tried to get here. Mr. Bishop, of Florence—a town down on the Delaware river in South Jersey—is a fine gentleman of the old school. He is a strong leader in church work. He is one of the leaders of society in his community. He is president of the Burlington County Colony for Feeble-Minded, and he has campaigned up and down that county ever since that movement started in the interest of caring for the feeble-minded of that county and that colony home, and he is very much interested in it.

There is a man up in Hunterdon county on a farm who has only ten, fifteen or twenty cases a year, but he looks after them individually, carefully and well. There is a man down in Somerville who is doing a very interesting and remarkable work in a quiet way. I think the gentleman must be seventy years of age, but during this winter he was busy all the time going into these family homes and sitting down and talking with them, being neighborly with them, going to the different local societies, of which there are a number, but very small and very scantily financed, and he went to these ladies of this group and that group and told them about this family that he had found, and asked them if they could not be more neighborly and go over there and do something for them. Now, all through this State I find such overseers of the poor as that.

I wish I could tell you the work the overseer of the poor is doing in the city of Camden, where he has the co-operation of the police department, and every time an application comes there he immediately calls up the police department to send an officer to that family to find out from the neighborhood what the trouble is. Within an hour the man on the beat is given that job to do, to look that family up and see if that family is in distress, and within two hours, if it is a case of distress, temporary relief is given, and then the overseer follows it up.

It is hard to get these overseers together to talk these matters over. I meet them as I travel about the State. There is a very modest gentleman sitting back in the room shaking his head at me now. He represents a very peculiar position. He is working under an old charter of the city. He is working under that

charter and the revised poor law of the State. He has an anomalous position. He is superintendent of the almshouse, without having any authority at the almshouse. He is working under the difficulty of trying to get along with the Board of Health, the Poor Department, the City Council, the Mayor and the building committee, and I do not know what other committees. If there is a door to be hung or a window to be repaired, it has to go through that routine of committee government in the city before he can get anything done, and the chances are, "Oh, we will attend to that some other time; the committee won't meet until next month," or if they meet, one of the men may be out of town and they want to consult him, and so it goes on over and over again.

You know there is an overseer of the poor in every township, borough or village, and in some counties they have a county almshouse where they can send these poor people to a central place. In some counties they have no county almshouse, but they have a town's almshouse built on a farm. The township lets the farm out to a farmer to run for what he can get out of it, and the provision is that if he has an old person he can send him to that farm and the farmer will look after that man or women in some way or other. Now with that difficult condition in this State, and knowing the individual needs of each local community, I want to say that in the poor relief work under official control in the State of New Jersey, the State of New Jersey ranks with any State in the United States.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am glad Mr. Stonaker started this discussion. I hope everybody will follow it up.

We will now hear from Mr. Arthur W. MacDougall, "From the Viewpoint of Private Charities."

Discussion—"Public and Private Relief from Viewpoint of Private Charities."

ARTHUR W. MAC DOUGALL, NEWARK.

Mr. Chairman and gentlemen: I assume that we are not here to engage either in controversy or in special pleading, but to get at the facts. We want to arrive at such a knowledge of the situation as to enable overseers of the poor and officials of private charities both to work more intelligently and more effectively, and better still to co-operate. It seems to me that in this, as in other fields, the issue is confused somewhat by misunderstanding, the one not knowing the viewpoint or the real work of the other. We in private charity are too inclined to believe that all overseers of the poor are influenced by politics, that they are limited in their point of view, lack information and are decidedly not social workers. The overseers, on the other hand, are inclined to think workers in private charity opinionated and self-satisfied. They think them sentimental. They create more need than they relieve. I have heard this opinion expressed by overseers. The term "social worker" does not always impress the overseers.

At the start I wish to line up some of the questions that naturally arise in connection with the subject. These questions are in the minds of this audience now. Charity Organization workers, for instance, have been taught in the past to look upon public outdoor relief with suspicion and disfavor and to seek its abolition. It has been abolished in a number of large cities where strong private societies exist. Brooklyn is a classical example. Outdoor poor relief was abolished there in mid-winter under Mayor Seth Low, and no suffering resulted. Since that period a new view has come, or rather the question has arisen through new impulses and from a different angle. Few Charity Organization workers are now seeking to abolish outdoor relief in their communities. Many are accepting it and seeking co-operation and help from the Overseers. A new view is gaining ground that private relief is inadequate and that relief

should be a public function. There are those, indeed, who want to see the whole administration of charity taken over by the State or its political divisions.

Workers in private charity know that the dangers of public relief have not grown less; at the same time they realize the possibility of radical improvement under commission or other progressive government where the people may act with their highest intelligence. What effect will this have upon private charity? The question then assumes this form. It is public relief *versus* private relief, or is there a field for both? If so, what are their respective fields and along what lines may they best co-operate? We know the inadequacy of private relief funds and the continuous difficulty of raising these funds in the wisest way. On the other hand, there is no doubt about the dangers of public relief funds as still generally administered.

At the outset, therefore, it is worth while to divide the issue regarding public or private relief between the situation as it is to-day in most New Jersey cities and the situation as it may be under progressive government with politics eliminated. On the one hand, private charity must take conditions as it finds them and adjust its work accordingly. On the other hand, if we are to plan for the future we must get at the fundamental purpose of relief and determine those lines of action of private charity which will persist notwithstanding the perfection of the administration of public relief.

This brings me to the first issue. I would urge that we abandon the popular obsession that relief, either public or private, can consist alone of material gifts—supplies of food, clothing, fuel, etc. All charity workers that are worth their salt know that the cases where the gift of supplies is the only need are few, and that they are not of any special type or class. I mean we cannot pick out and separate into a class cases that may be relieved by material help alone in order to do a separate work for them. Into a charity office comes every type of human need whether it be an Overseer Office, Relief Society or C. O. S. We may establish separate relief funds to draw upon, but no agency can do a purely material relief work whether it be an

Overseer's Department, a Relief Society, or a Charity Organization Society, at least not if it has any degree of intelligence or of conscience. In many of the large cities the Charity Organization Society and the Relief Society have coalesced, the Relief Society remaining simply to supply a relief fund, but having no administrative activity beyond this.

Take the experience, for instance, with Widows' Pensions. If any class of cases would seem to be purely relief cases, it is these. Yet what has been the experience of our own State Board which has been administering the law for a year or more? In the first place, our law has a definite objective. It is not simply to furnish supplies to widows, but "to promote the home life of children." By thorough investigation and searching inquiries in open court, an attempt is made to select only appropriate cases. Follow-up work is then done in each case to see that the home life of the children is really promoted. Yet in many cases, already, the allowance has had to be withdrawn. Assistance to widows is naturally and properly a popular proposition. The kindly citizen, however, takes it for granted that all that is needed is the pension money. Supply this and the situation is met. As a matter of fact, experience shows that supervision, follow-up work after the pension has been granted, is as important as providing the pension itself. It is so important, indeed, that many feel that it will be better to have no pensions than to have pensions without this helpful, careful, supervisory work. Let it be understood that by supervision is not meant espionage or detective work. It is not a negative but a positive constructive proposition. The beneficiaries are human beings, fallible and imperfect, and the follow-up work includes advising, instructing, befriending, admonishing.

We are getting back now to the fundamental question—What is relief, or, rather, what will really relieve the destitute family? What is charity? The popular misconception and misrepresentation of charity is appalling. Take, for instance, the attitude this winter toward the unemployed. We had on the one hand the insistence that because these were respectable workingmen, they must not be treated as charity cases. Charity is supposed

to carry a stigma, yet "Bundle Days" were undertaken throughout the whole country for these same men; cast-off clothing was collected for their benefit apparently with the expectation of really meeting the problem. Furthermore, the amateur philanthropist took the stake, thrusting aside the wisdom gained by charity workers from lessons of the past, and substituted an unwise charity suggested by his own inexperience. It is literally true that the unemployed do not want "charity." Certainly not the charity that implies something for nothing, that partakes of class patronage. The unemployed do want charity that takes thought and pains and that really believes (and practices the belief) that these are self-respecting men and their self-respect must be saved. The charity that they want is the charity that will prevent, if possible, the recurrence of unemployment.

The American Association of Labor Legislation is the organization which is contributing most just now towards the solution of the unemployment problem. This Association is as definitely a charity in the right sense of the word as any relief society. I object to the phrase "Not charity but justice," because I believe true charity includes justice.

No C. O. S. that I am acquainted with has the faintest notion that in most cases relief is anything more than a temporary expedient and that their job consists in really remedying the situation, restoring family integrity, bringing the needs of the destitute family to its own kith and kin, realizing upon its social assets, if it has created any, in the way of the interest and goodwill of employers, of church or fraternal society, or restoring it to a normal position of self-care. Charity Organization people call it family rehabilitation. To refer again to the unemployment situation of the past winter, Charity Organization Societies throughout the United States outlined as early as October programs for the winter's work, and a conspicuous feature of these programs was an avoidance of relief or "charity" so-called. The plan was to urge public work on the part of municipal and State authorities. This work was to be real work—the pushing of projects already planned, but that might otherwise be left until a later season. These Societies, without ex-

ception, took a vital interest in efforts of the American Association of Labor Legislation to push for a more thorough study of the whole question of unemployment and means for its ultimate solution. Public works projects were pushed in many of the cities and gave work to many of the unemployed men. In many others, including my own city, the plans came to naught, owing to the interference of politics. Where these plans failed the Societies improvised work for the unemployed. Our own Society made an arrangement with our Municipal Employment Bureau to provide work for such of the unemployed as had actually reached the stage of destitution. It set about to sift out the *bona fide* worker temporarily unemployed, provided a sufficient number of days' work to prevent destitution, paying \$1.50 per day, and was at pains to keep these families out of the regular machinery of the Society. In other words, it treated them as socially normal, destitute because of an abnormal industrial situation over which they had no control. Personally, I felt that there was not case work necessary in these families. The whole problem ought not to have been put up to charity, either public or private. It was a case for intelligent and resourceful public action. I refer to meeting the temporary, abnormal industrial situation. The problem of unemployment in so far as it concerns industrially efficient men is a problem for the State. It is a travesty to try to meet an economic problem by relief. None know this better than those working in private charities.

We have to recognize the fact that money, food, clothing are results, effects. Our work is to convey to the needy family the secret of getting these things for itself. I am reminded of a remark of a director of a Society when he first came into the work. It was in connection with devising some form of work test through which the unemployed men could temporarily earn some money. He said, "Why bother these poor devils to work for it—why not give them the money."

The danger of trying to correct economic conditions by relief giving, to use relief to right industrial wrongs, is as old as relief itself. We have the disastrous experience of English Poor Law relief prior to the poor-law reforms of 1834. Public relief was depended upon to supplement workmen's wages.

What then are we trying to do? We are endeavoring to use relief not as an opiate, but simply as one of the elements in restoring the family to a normal, healthy, industrial condition. I grant that frequently the reason for dependence lies outside of the control of the family itself, and that sooner or later the economic and industrial problem to which the family has fallen a victim must be remedied. Material relief will not remedy these conditions, however, and it is a part of the social worker's job to find out the industrial and economic facts regarding the family and follow these up until a remedy is forthcoming. If we are really onto our relief jobs and have accomplished anything in relief work we know it has been done by recognizing social facts and laws of character. We have had to recognize and safeguard those qualities in the individual which make for integrity, self-dependence and industrial competence. Also those social virtues which make for family integrity—brother assisting brother, fathers and grandfathers caring for children and grandchildren, kindred recognizing the ties of blood.

The Social Worker.

In other words, we must be social workers. We must acquaint ourselves with the laws of social health in as definite a way as the civil engineer acquaints himself with the laws of physics and mathematics. It is the day for the social worker. I use this term conscious of all the shortcomings, of the profession of which I want to claim myself a member. We are often half-baked, self-opinionated and self-satisfied, but we have the right aims. I believe that there are overseers who are as definitely social workers as those working in private charity. I believe that every overseer must become a social worker rather than a relief agent. A social worker relates his problem of relief to the individual and social background. I believe that co-operation between private charity workers and overseers of the poor is coming about and will increase along two lines: First, the poor funds under the overseer being made available for legitimate cases of relief brought to the attention of the overseer by private charity, and, second, co-operation along constructive

lines, case-work lines, as the overseers bring into their work trained agents, thoroughly acquainted with social facts. It is possible, to-day, for the poor departments of our various cities to provide for their agents definite training along case-work lines. The New York School of Philanthropy will conduct an institute next month which will be definitely along this line, and the school is anxious to secure the attendance of overseers or their representatives.

Will the State take over all forms of charity? I doubt it. I believe the municipalities should take over now those forms of relief that interfere the least with self-help and family integrity. Some of these forms make for self-help. I refer to sick relief—hospitals. I think private charity should be relieved of the great burden of these either by the city taking them over or subsidizing them. I believe the work of our board of health should be extended so as to guarantee healthful conditions.

We should not leave to the vicissitudes of private charity any of these things which involve the health, education or training for self-support of our people.

It will always remain the function of private charity to initiate experiments. When the social value of these has been demonstrated and the logic of public support demonstrated, then it is the part of progress to secure the support of such enterprises by the municipality or the State.

I believe that public relief other than that temporarily required to relieve actual suffering should have an objective, should be planned and the plan followed out.

More Co-operation Between Public and Private Charity.

Finally, I want to raise a question as to the tendency of public officials to exaggerate the distinction between public and private activities, to change the line separating them into a wall. In both the funds come from the pockets of the public. In the one case the funds are raised by taxation, in the other they are given.

If there were common standards of work adopted and a getting

together, much wasted effort would be saved and human wastage avoided.

THE CHAIRMAN—Under the head of "Viewpoint of Private Charities" it might be interesting for you ladies to know that we have a private charity in Trenton, the Jewish organization. The Orthodox Jews have solved the charity problem. They have a superintendent. They have a fund of several thousand dollars, and when anyone wants anything, if of their religion—happens to be an old man or a young man with a family—they loan from this fund up to about five hundred dollars, and with that they buy horses and wagons and start them peddling, opening up stores or something else. This has been going on for about five years. The society takes their notes and don't charge them interest.

I will now introduce Mr. Walter W. Whitson, Superintendent of the Orange Associated Charities.

WALTER W. WHITSON, ORANGE.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: Before I begin what I am prepared to say this morning I wish to congratulate Trenton and Jersey City on their splendid public relief departments, as anyone can see who has listened to the description of the work they are doing. I wish to call attention to a very grave danger presented in the remarks of our friend, Mr. Stonaker. He told you of a number of the overseers who were doing something for which he felt they should be congratulated. For instance, the overseer of the poor in Camden, I believe it was, who called upon the police department and had the police officer from the beat go there and within two hours, at the greatest, often within an hour Mr. Stonaker informed you, the investigation had been made. Now, anyone who has been doing any kind of relief work at all knows that it is physically, mentally and morally impossible to make an investigation either in a police uniform, or in the physical limits of one or two hours. I think that we are likely to be satisfied with that little work and thereby handicap the more thorough work such as we are

getting in other cities. And the same thing I believe could be true of the overseer of over seventy years of age who, although possibly a very lovable and kindly man who could go and visit with his neighbors, but I know very few people of seventy years of age of my acquaintance who could make any kind of an investigation and do that painstaking and nerve-racking work of getting the co-operation of the various agencies. Therefore, I am very anxious that we shall not be satisfied with the little advantage we know we may be getting from the methods such as Mr. Stonaker described, when two cities have set such splendid examples of public work.

The society which I represent has rather a unique position from the point of view of the subject under discussion. The Orange Bureau of Associated Charities covers all the Oranges. Each municipality has its own public relief official, and our relationship is different in each case. What I have to say may sometimes apply to one overseer of the poor and sometimes to another, but must not be taken as universally applicable. The historical attitude of our society toward the overseer of the poor has been characterized by a willingness, even a desire, to do his investigating and follow-up work, with the expectation that he would accept our recommendations and give relief in accordance with them. This policy has been pursued with varying success. The overseers have all been men with other occupations, consequently able to give only a fraction of their time to this office.

When the Bureau was first organized, nearly thirty-six years ago, it was forbidden by its constitution to give material relief directly. It was organized to be a relief clearing house, to prevent fraud and duplication of relief, to maintain friendly relationship between the well-to-do and the poor and to give employment. At the time of the depression of 1892-'93 a relief policy was adopted, but the primary functions historically have always continued to be of primary importance. More recently the specialization of social service work, the development of a professional spirit, a larger amount of carefully prepared literature and the establishment of schools of philanthropy have produced a better trained group of charity workers. So far trained social

workers in our communities have only been employed by the private relief agencies, but I believe the time is coming rapidly when public relief officials also will be especially trained. Such trained workers treat a family in want, not as a problem of whether or not they should receive a grocery order or rent, but from the point of view of a social physician, trying to diagnose and treat a social break-down. The important thing to them is to know all the facts in order to restore not only income, but health, education, efficiency, moral tone. In other words, to rehabilitate the family, so that they will be able to provide their own incomes and transform them into those things which make for family welfare. I believe a great deal of the lack of satisfactory co-operation between the C. O. S. worker and overseer of the poor is due to a failure on the part of the latter to realize that the Associated Charities is not a relief society (even though it may give some relief), and a failure on the part of the former to realize that the overseer may be qualified, through his experience, to do many other things, in connection with family treatment, besides give relief, send to almshouse and make complaint for nonsupport. I notice that the co-operation which our visitors have with the overseers depends largely upon the extent to which they talk over the other problems in the case with him and get his advice. He is then more likely to accept our recommendations for relief and to ask us to investigate and follow up his cases.

I believe that the most practical division at present is on the basis of function, *i. e.*, the public relief official being primarily a relief agent and the private society supplying the social service or personal element. The position of our own society in regard to relief is that in emergency or during investigation we give material aid from our general funds, securing as much of it from natural sources, such as relatives, churches, friends, employers, etc., as is possible, but we do not give relief involving special expenditure or of a continuous nature from our general funds. At this point we turn most often to the municipality, but also to the natural sources, to special appeals, to holding these funds in trust and to special relief societies, religious or secular. We refer desertion and nonsupport cases to the overseer of the

poor, because the poor law provides that he shall make complaint against the delinquent husband.

One tendency which I have noticed is to reserve for special appeal those attractive "gilt edge" families and refer to the overseer the most discouraging, less attractive ones. This is hardly playing the game fair. Such a policy would tend to degrade rather than to raise the public office. I am not in sympathy with that sentiment sometimes expressed that "we should try to keep all but the paupers off the city's books." I do not see that public relief, if rightly handled, need be any more demoralizing than private. The Associated Charities, because it probably has more facts at its command, should take the attitude of protecting the public treasury rather than that of getting as much as possible from it.

One problem which confronts us is the inadequacy of relief, particularly in the regular allowance or pension cases. One of our poormasters does give adequate relief, even when a large amount is required. For instance, to one widow, the mother of four children, he has regularly given a four-dollar grocery order, coal as needed, and paid for two quarts of milk daily and the rent, a total of nearly forty dollars a month. As far as I have been able to judge, this policy has met with more favor from the citizens and taxpayers than that of niggardly relief. I happened recently to see the records of another official. There were fifty-nine families on the list as receiving assistance. The average amount per month for a family was \$7.71. Out of thirty-eight families receiving grocery orders fifteen received less than one dollar a week, and only one received as much as two dollars. We must show that it is better business to help one family adequately than to give fifty-cent weekly grocery orders to four. A family that gets along on fifty cents a week can get along without any assistance, and others would be enabled to maintain their health and decent standards with the amount thus saved.

We sometimes have difficulty in cases of public relief, due to questions of residence. The Poor Law states quite definitely that a person who becomes dependent shall be helped by the municipality where he becomes dependent until his residence is

established. There seems to be a fear on the part of some officials that they will help someone belonging to a rival municipality. The recipient, in the meantime, is the sufferer. A Polish man, who had been in this country over four years, was sent to the State Tuberculosis Sanatorium. His dependent family was not a case for deportation, having been in the country over three years. The city in which they were then living would not help them because they had lived there only a few months. They had been in one of the other Oranges, a few blocks from their present abode, about four years. The latter would not help because they had not lived there the necessary time to acquire a residence under the Poor Law (five years). Meantime the woman had grown discouraged, and had written her husband, who came home after a month's stay, although he was doing splendidly, and had gained eleven pounds, and had every reasonable prospect of being cured. Another woman had to give up work to care for her mother, dying of cancer. She applied to the overseer where she lived. He gave her fifteen dollars, and then would do nothing more because she had no residence. Was referred to the adjoining municipality, from which she received one-quarter ton of coal, bread tickets and two dollars. He would not continue help because she was living outside of his limits. She then was referred to us. A little personal service, a few letters and telephone calls resulted in getting another daughter to give her mother and sister a home. If this had been done originally, the entire expenses could have been saved and the family saved unnecessary worry and trouble. An entirely different spirit was displayed by a South Jersey overseer. When we wrote him about the family of a man who had died of pneumonia eight months after coming to Orange, he replied, "I have been talking to her friends here. They say they can and will help her and the children. The superintendent of the local factory is willing to rent her a house. So I think it will be better for her to come here, and we will do what we can for her." Such an attitude of interest and helpfulness is much appreciated.

In conclusion, I wish to state that we have had unusually close co-operation with the overseers of the Oranges. We have always

found them willing to have our workers go to them to talk over cases, and I trust that they have found us helpful. They register their families with our Confidential Exchange, a central registration bureau, and one overseer has testified in an open meeting that this has saved his city several thousand dollars.

THE CHAIRMAN—The next speaker is Mr. J. B. Gwin, Superintendent of the Organized Charities of Paterson. I know he will have something interesting to say, because Paterson is a live city, and has been doing great things even under old conditions.

J. B. GWIN, PATERSON.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I have worked in Winnipeg, Canada; Baltimore, Maryland, and in Paterson, New Jersey. I have been particularly interested in the relationship between private agencies and public relief officials, because all these cities have established and developed different systems and methods.

In Winnipeg the entire City Relief Fund, about \$14,000, is administered by the Associated Charities, and in addition the city pays a yearly stipend towards the administration expenses of the Associated Charities—public relief administered by a private organization.

In Baltimore, Maryland, there is no public relief fund at all, and the entire question of the relief of the poor is left to a private organization—the Federated Charities.

In Paterson, as in other New Jersey cities, we have both public and private relief.

The talks this morning have proven very interesting to me, and I think have strengthened my previous belief that public relief has great possibilities of development. At some future time, perhaps very soon in some places, and perhaps in the far distant future in others, the overseers of the poor or public relief officials will properly care for those who apply to them for help. In my opinion there is no fundamental reason why these officials may not only give adequate relief as well as make care-

ful investigations, but will also develop their departments so that they may also give with the relief that helpful service which the private organizations have been trained to give. Public relief work is certain to receive more attention in the future as it has already received in Jersey City and Denver, Colorado. The principal functions of the charity organization may be taken over by the public officials in time and administered in just as efficient a manner. We know in some cities this won't come soon. Certainly not in our time.

I want to mention just one phase of charity organization society work and to leave this question with you. Admitting all that I have just admitted in regards to the possible developments of public relief work, would the need of a private organization, such as ours, still exist?

Let me ask another question, which I will answer myself. Is the work of a charity organization society limited to making thorough investigations, giving friendly advice, helpful service and adequate relief, important as these are? There is another side of our work just as important, which is not another side or phase, but belongs with the functions I have just mentioned. Yesterday in Paterson some children were begging from door to door. A citizen phoned to the C. O. S. to ask our advice. We said to him very courteously, but very emphatically, "You must not give money or any help to these children, but please do so and so," and he said, "Very well, if you think best I will refuse to help them at my door, but will do as you advise." We are daily saying to church workers and private individuals, "You should give more relief to this family, or you should give no relief at all, but certain kinds of services are needed." In this way we are arousing many citizens as well as the workers of other organizations into efforts for definite personal service for some family in need of such service. We are also directing and encouraging proper relief for almost the entire community. This is a function of all charity organizations.

Can this work of arousing the public interest and at least partially directing this interest into definite helpful service, ever be properly the work of an overseer of the poor? I would not be

willing to answer "No," even to this question. I only want to say that until such officials are able and willing to broaden the scope of their work to include this phase, public relief can in no true sense take the place of private relief. We all know that no matter how well we may plan and provide for a family in need, if we don't have the intelligent co-operation of other people who may want to help the same family, if they are not in sympathy with our plan our efforts may be futile, and accomplish little of permanent value. It is generally as important to get the sympathetic interest of the public as it is to get the co-operation of the needy family.

We have labored to get the interest, co-operation and confidence of the public in our problems. It has been a difficult task for us and is as yet only partially completed—it may prove an impossible task to a public agency. At present I think this unfinished task belongs to us. We cannot turn back any more than we can give it over to any other agency, public or private.

We should not expect the public relief departments to thus broaden and extend the scope of their work until there has been a similar development in other departments of cities or municipalities. When an interested citizen reports a family in need to a charity organization society a full report is given verbally when possible, in writing when this is not possible. These reports tell what has been done, and why. The overseers of the poor of New Jersey do not send such reports of their work. The co-operation and help of the citizens of the community does not have any place in their work. The same is true of every other department in most of our cities. If you report any unlawful or unsanitary condition to a board of health, or to a police station, they may arrest the person who is committing the unlawful act or clean up the unsanitary house, but as a rule the citizen who told them of the bad condition never knows what action was taken, consequently he may take no further interest in such work. He might have been encouraged to report other bad conditions in his neighborhood and in this way have been of real help to these departments. All city departments may endeavor some day to secure the understanding and co-operation

of a community which they have helped to arouse and interest. We should not expect this service from the overseer of the poor until we are prepared to ask the same thing from all other departments of the city government.

It is a serious question in my mind whether the public officials hampered as they are by political consideration will ever be able to thus popularize and humanize their work.

THE CHAIRMAN—The next speaker on the program is Miss Phillips, of the C. O. S. of Plainfield.

MISS MABELLE C. PHILLIPS, PLAINFIELD.

I have before me the financial statement of the overseer of the poor in the city where I am employed as Secretary of a C. O. S. There are about one hundred names on this list of beneficiaries for the year 1914. Of these all but five or ninety-five per cent. are known by our organization. More than this, most of these ninety-five families were, I think, investigated by the C. O. S., planned for in the matter of relief by the C. O. S., and by the C. O. S. referred to the overseer of the poor, who gave, in nearly every instance perhaps, the required relief. The amounts spent show, happily, some advance in standards over those prevalent in Missouri, at least, where the recent Russell Sage publication reports \$10 a quarter as typical relief. In this schedule \$331 was given by the overseer to one family of an insane man, \$301 to another similar family. Twenty-two dependent children cost the city over \$1,500 for wise and proper care, but saved the city and State, doubtless, thousands of dollars in care of adult delinquents and paupers.

These figures show, certainly, active co-operation between public and private charity. The cordial relation is very gratifying to our private charity, and that it is appreciated by the overseer of the poor is shown by his request to councils that an appropriation of \$100 be made to the C. O. S. "for services." I have not heard of such an appropriation having been made, but the point I wish to establish is the cordiality and mutuality of the co-operation.

The program does not call for the discussion of our subject save from the point of view of "private charity" and that of "public charity," but it seems to me that two other view-points should be considered while we are at it, namely, that of the beneficiary and that of the community. Since the former is, of course, included in the latter, the two may be considered together, and the question most important to be asked, it seems to me, is, is it best for the *community* that public or private charity shall minister to its unfortunates, and if each has a place, what function belongs to each for the best interests, not of public charity nor of private charity, but of the community? The epidemic of criticism against organized private charities has been rather more virulent than ever this year. What I believe is at the bottom of all this antagonism to private charity is this: that it is not democratic; that it is, at best, a survival of the "Lady Bountiful" ideal; that it may support itself out of the very coffers enriched by the grinding of the poor.

I believe that the social work of the community should be done, *as soon as possible*, by representatives of the community. I believe that we are postponing the day when this shall be accomplished if we do the work of investigating and planning reconstruction of families for the overseers of the poor, instead of aiming to get our own standards and methods adopted by the public agencies. By demanding quarterly reports of the overseers, as is done in Indiana, in which the age of applicants and dates of application, settlement, present and previous occupation, ability, etc., must be given, I believe we should be inaugurating proper standards. As the Russell Sage publication, above referred to, says, "Many of the best societies are working along this line, and the regularly rising standard of public relief work in their communities is proof that the program is a possible one."

How are we to get our smaller communities to pay the price of such a program? That, I think, is the job of private charity; to educate the public, get the community to accept and adopt our standards, and then, as Miss Richmond pointed out several years ago before the National Conference, then what happens to ourselves and to our societies will in no wise matter.

THE CHAIRMAN—The Overseer of the Poor Department in Trenton under the old condition had an annual appropriation of approximately eighteen thousand dollars, and at the present time, during the past three years appropriations have not increased, excepting last year it was a slight increase, about three thousand dollars, but the efficiency of the department has been strengthened. We have one man, a field man, a clerk, assistant, and an extra doctor, and the expenses have not increased at all, so it shows what can be done to increase efficiency without increasing the cost.

The next speaker is Miss Townsend, of Elizabeth.

MISS HARRIET TOWNSEND, ELIZABETH.

Our attitude towards public relief is governed by our conception of government. What is the City? What is the County? What is the State?

It is ourselves. It is the social organism made up of you and me and our neighbors. It is the organization by which we are linked up by one life in common fellowship.

Government is the instinct; nay, let us call it the organ which acts for us. It carries the standard of social welfare into every home, into every street and alley. If it carries a standard that we are all ashamed of, then it is our moral laziness that has refused to exercise the leverage of higher standards.

I must confess to an impatience with the increasing amount of props to the fabric of the State that we are all called upon to support. We are constantly devising aid associations to help the State officials who are paid to do the work, and they should be held to standard or be dropped. I do not believe in this complacent acceptance of unworthy officeholders. Expect the best service, demand the best service, and you'll get it.

Early in the nineteenth century Dr. Chalmers, to whom we owe so much in emphasizing the personal and individual character of benevolence, held that it was hopeless to mitigate the evils of outdoor public relief.

Since then science has opened up a marvelous mine of causes of

poverty, and along with it has developed sense of social responsibility, so to-day it is unchallenged that society cannot suffer the weaker member to perish without help.

Modern nations base their customs and their poor laws on the assumption that every human being has a right to the means of existence; once he is born, no Christian State permits any citizen to starve.

Now, then, if society takes this responsibility for supporting those who fail to support themselves, it has the right to say how; so we are witnessing the extension of social control, and as we are learning more of our people by our careful case work there is not a social worker who does not seek for more social control over the border line cases.

Let us consider some of the glaring causes of poverty. Outside the home we are rapidly bringing under governmental control Education, Recreation, Housing, Public Sanitation, Employment.

We are to-day demanding extension of social control, police power to enforce conformity with welfare standards.

Mental defect and certain forms of physical defect. Tuberculosis workers are feeling the futility of sanatorium care interrupted by the whim of the patient.

Inebriety. We are demanding special colonies where such should be committed for cure. Police power over the deserter and nonsupported.

Over criminality and moral obliquity we now exercise social control. Absence of natural care for children we have obtained police power to control.

The sin of outdoor relief is the sin of all inhumanity, viz., Impersonality, the sin of treating a person as less than a person, of treating the poor as the poor, thereby we get the mechanical dole of bread and coals.

I believe the function to-day of private relief is the leavening of society, to rehumanize it by careful work with individual families—setting the standard.

It all lies within ourselves. Therefore, it would seem that we must have an extension of social control, and must expect the

best service from our instruments of the social organism, and thereby private and public endeavor may work to the most effective ends.

. THE CHAIRMAN—You have heard a great deal about Atlantic City. I know we all would like to be there this morning on the pier and would feel more comfortable, perhaps, than we do in this warm atmosphere. Atlantic City has been doing a whole lot of things. Once in awhile you hear unfavorable things, but that is only in one little quarter. It has been doing wonderful social work during the past few years, and I am glad to introduce to you at this time Miss Ellis, from Atlantic City.

MISS JENNIE LOIS ELLIS, ATLANTIC CITY.

In order that you may understand somewhat of our position in Atlantic City, which has been unique, it will be necessary for me to give you a little history. The Organized Charities began work March 16th, 1909, and had been organized less than six months when the city council voted to appropriate its poor relief fund to us. This action was taken because of the inefficiency of the overseer of the poor and of the political situation in the city. The overseer of the poor was seldom at his office, those needing his assistance could not find him to ask for it, those who did get his orders frequently sold them and used the money for drink. The people who got the orders were often political friends instead of the deserving poor. Because of these conditions we were importuned to take the city appropriation. Our board refused at first and only accepted under condition that every cent of the money appropriated should be expended in relief and the entire administration expenses of the society should be paid by our voluntary contributions, as formerly. This was in order that we might keep out of politics and so that the council could have nothing to say in regard to our policy. Since December, 1909, until March of this year, the council, and later the commissioners, have yearly appropriated money for our use. This money has been used in accordance with the poor law of

New Jersey, which we have given a liberal interpretation. All the cases of need which have been referred to us have been thoroughly investigated, emergency relief being given pending a plan for the family. During the past winter, which has been an unusual one, it was not possible with our limited force to make as thorough investigation as we wished, but we have done the best we could and feel that the poor people have received intelligent care.

Our situation is different from that of most other municipalities in the State in another regard. Atlantic City has no almshouse. Atlantic county has an almshouse, to which the overseer of the poor can commit patients by paying \$3.50 a week for their board, if the superintendent of the almshouse chooses to admit them. We have been repeatedly told by the overseer of the poor that no sick person can be sent there, as they have no provision for caring for the sick. This has obliged us to pay board for a number of dependent people in private families and in institutions, who would otherwise be placed in the almshouse.

I do not know how it is with the other charity organization societies, but we have been sadly hampered in our efforts to make non-supporting husbands care for their families by the unwillingness of the overseer of the poor to co-operate with us by enforcing the law.

Personally I am very glad that since the first of March we have been allowed to take up the work which rightfully belongs to a charity organization society, and have been relieved of the care of the city's poor. There are a large number of people who come to us who cannot be helped through the city's fund. They have not a legal residence. They may need just to be tided over an emergency. They may need, more than anything else, a helpful friend who will give them good advice. These things the charity organization society is equipped to do, while the office of the overseer of the poor is not. As I see it this is the strongest reason why we need a charity organization society. Its function is larger than that of the overseer of the poor, whose business it is to give relief. It is our business to look into the causes of poverty and distress, to bring these to the attention

of the large body of our citizens, and to get something done to change these conditions. We have not accomplished as much as we could wish in the five years of our existence, but we have done a great deal to stop the begging on the streets and at the homes, which was very annoying. By insisting repeatedly we helped induce the city commissioners to provide detention room for women and children so that they might not be confined in our city jail with the men. We have convinced the people of our community that there is need for some nursing work, and at present have two visiting nurses. A great deal of interest has been aroused in the tuberculosis question. We were instrumental in establishing a tuberculosis clinic which has been in operation since April, 1914, and in getting our county board of freeholders to make some provision for the advanced cases of tuberculosis. They arranged on the 15th of December to place our patients in the Camden County Sanatorium, and at their last meeting voted to build an institution in Atlantic county. We have called attention to the bad housing in certain sections of the city, but have not accomplished very much in that line as yet. Through newspaper reports of our work, we are constantly trying to educate the public in general, and through case committees and friendly visitors we are developing a body of people who are interested in their neighbors and who are working to better the living conditions of our city.

President Hibben explained well the difference between the work of the overseer of the poor and the charity organization society when he said charity is not giving food and clothing—it is love.

The overseers of the poor are expected, from the municipal funds, to give food, clothing, fuel and rent, while the charity organization societies aim to enlist the citizens of the community to give intelligent and loving care to the unfortunate and to remedy conditions, so that the number of these shall be reduced to the smallest minimum.

REV. AUGUSTUS ELMENDORF, NEWARK.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: In New Jersey the law of the State requires that there shall be overseers and states their powers. In addition we have superimposed upon society the voluntary relief societies. Our purpose this morning was to bring out some discussion on the justification of such a situation.

Now the justification, as we find it, has been presented to us by Mr. MacDougall, that the amount of work is such that there could be rightly some division, and I suppose that is true in large cities. It would not be true, of course, in the smaller places.

There has been a presentation of another point of view, the kind of work first, and possibly a division of work, certain kinds of relief being undertaken by the overseer and certain by the charity organization society. Then there has been suggested an educational requirement. There is no reason why the person who has the title of Overseer of the Poor should be less schooled than the one who is the superintendent of a charity organization society. It happens perhaps to be so, but if that were the only distinction between the two methods of relief then surely our efforts ought to be to raise the standard of the overseers rather than ask the taxpayers for voluntary contributions. The thing which appeals to most of us is the saving of the public purse. There is something in giving, and it might very well be that whenever the time came that our work of relieving the lame, the halt and the blind, should be done by force only, that it would stop the development of a large part of the beautiful character in people who learn the joy of giving. In that respect, of course, private charity does minister not only to the poor, but it ministers to us who are asked to give. Certain groups of people do not wish to be cared for because of some stigma attached to municipal relief.

I would also like to emphasize the point made by Miss Townsend of the pioneer work. But you cannot rightly tax people for the purpose of making a venture. You have only the right

to tax people for that which is well understood and which is accepted as a proper method of procedure. Now if a group of people feel that there is some method which ought to be introduced they should finance it, and there you have perhaps the real reason for Organized Charities to do pioneer work, and then work out some plan which ultimately perhaps will be taken over by the community. And then there is the lack of legal residence, the point last made. We could, of course, change the law to cover it, but the question is as to whether it would be possible to so impress the legislators that they would be willing to do so. I doubt it.

In regard to one other point, made by Mr. Gwin about the arousing of the public, I think this is the chief function of charities. Religion would be a strange thing if it did not stir the conscience. The church as it gets a social vision becomes a more and more efficient agency in arousing the public conscience.

THE CHAIRMAN—Is there any more discussion?

MR. EDWARD BLAU, Newark—During the different addresses made by the charity workers, Mr. MacDougall has brought one thing home to me as a representative of the United Hebrew Charities of Newark. The word "justice," which Mr. MacDougall mentioned in his address, is the keystone of Hebrew charity. It is well known among all other creeds that the Jews take care of their poor, and, if I may say so, *we* do. It seems to me that the Hebrew word "charity," meaning also "justice," is really the fundamental reason which spurs us to self-support and makes the Jews take care of their poor. We don't look upon them as charity patients. We look upon them as our own and that justice is due them, that they have the rights in the community to be on an even par with any of us who are self-supporting, if the same chances are given them. We have, therefore, established a workroom and are doing a large business selling white goods to the department stores, and thereby employing a great many destitute widows, who are doing the work at home, and by keeping the family together and by giving them a fair wage they become self-supporting. We are taking care,

however, that nursing mothers or sickly women do none of that work. We are taking care of our unemployed men and get work for them. A personal service society, workers who speak the language of our people, go into their homes, talk with them, sympathize with them, to show them how to get work, and what to do in order to make themselves self-supporting. It seems to me that this is really a stepping-stone towards the prevention of poverty. It is more important to me to hear expressions on the topic of prevention of poverty than of relieving poverty. No doubt most of you have read Devine's book, "Cause of Poverty and Destitution," and read the chapters, "Without employment, without friends, without funds." If you go into this question you will find that prevention of poverty is a municipal, a State and National function, and I honestly believe that the governments of city or State could help to prevent poverty to a large degree.

It take it, as Mr. MacDougall mentioned before, that public work ought to go forward in the time of business depression more so than at other times. I am sorry to say that in our city the Mayor decided to do just the reverse. When the factories are closed down and thousands of people going about without employment, we stopped making public improvements. I repeat that the National Government ought to give out its orders for supplies to be manufactured, and it uses millions of dollars worth, during the time of depression. I say that when a certain industry has a dull season, the National Government could order its supplies for that class of goods during the time when those industries are shut down for want of orders, as unemployment is really one of the prime causes of poverty and destitution.

One other cause is disease, and the Jews are taking care to a great extent of those that are unable to earn a livelihood on account of disease, or in cases of old age. We don't depend upon the overseer of the poor when we want an old couple taken care of. We have a Jewish institution in the city of Newark, supported by private charity, which takes care of them. Taking up the question of investigators, I want to emphasize that we don't send an investigator to the homes of our people who speaks

the English language only. We send out investigators who speak the language of those poor they call upon. I want to say right here that proper investigation is a very important part in charity work. When you send to an Italian family to find out their condition send an Italian investigator and not an Englishman. When you send out to a Polish family send one that speaks the Polish language. It is the most important part in the investigation. These Polish or Italian investigators know the habits of that family, talk to them in a sympathetic way, and that family has a certain confidence, a certain faith in that investigator and her advice. I do not believe, as mentioned before, in a man in police uniform being sent to investigate the conditions of a destitute family. (Applause.)

MR. J. S. FENTON (Metuchen)—My position is an unique one, a reproduction of that medieval arrangement whereby the monk discharged the duties of the relieving officer of the community. Some months ago the borough of Metuchen, aware that my parochial duties had necessarily brought me into contact with cases of destitution, requested me to accept the office of overseer of the poor. I have usually found some solution for every parish problem, from the chaperoning of a Sunday-school excursion to the soothing of a choir friction, but face to face with the poor problem of the borough, I soon found myself helpless and adrift.

Contingencies arose which convinced me that conditions outside of our large cities are of such a character that with our present machinery it is almost impossible to administer relief in an intelligent, effective way. Public granting of relief is of two kinds. One you have heard of this morning in connection with the city of Trenton, thoroughly organized and equipped. The second deals with suburban and rural communities, where conditions are vastly different.

Here a sum, usually about \$500.00, is voted for the maintenance of the indigent, and with this the overseer of the poor, frequently also the board of health, family adviser and social worker combined are expected to find the bread line and eliminate poverty, vice and improvidence. Such are the problems that face many a perplexed overseer to-day. I have been asked

to speak a word in behalf of this little appreciated class of public servants. To cite one of our difficult cases of last winter, a man estranged from his family, steeped in alcohol, and one of the most hopeless wrecks imaginable, was thrown upon the town. He had to be fed, treated and nursed. A neighboring hospital received him for a week or two and discharged him as incurable. No family could be found willing to board him at any price. An almshouse near the borough refused to take him as a pay guest because, geographically, he was "over the line." The overseer, with the aid of a physician, had to cope with his disease and filth.

Many an overseer is up against similar problems, and in the solution of such he ought to get all the co-operation and sympathy his district can command. We spent in the few weeks on the case under discussion one-fourth of our annual appropriation, and what was the outcome? Our charge died in such degradation and filth that no rookery on the East Side of New York city could, I believe, have furnished a duplicate. Why such tragedies in a civilized community? We do not have the appliances for handling these cases. The people are not organized along social lines. Our machinery is crude and out of gear. Our system of administering relief provides so few institutions where, for a modest sum, the last days of these moral and physical wrecks can be made endurable. It is a lamentable fact that while this republic has led the world politically, it has failed, except in our large cities, to care for its destitute citizens in a scientific, altruistic way.

Reform is needed along three lines. First, we ought to give more attention to stimulating self-help among indigents able, and in many cases willing, to work. The administering of relief to this class without demanding some service in return is a crime against the community.

Until recently our borough jail served as a dormitory for tramps of all classes. I felt that such an arrangement was inexpedient socially, and that segregation was necessary. We rented a room which the church people of the borough furnished, and any traveler who is clean and deserving can use it overnight. But our present system of housing needs re-enforce-

ment. The overseer's office ought to be a clearing house where employer and employee could make each other acquainted, and I am convinced it would be a splendid enterprise for the borough of Metuchen to provide a woodyard, where these guests of a day might have an opportunity of working out their social salvation with a saw-horse and saw.

Again, the administering of relief not only calls for trained workers, it also demands the correlation of all these charitable forces which are found organized or unorganized in every community. Our charitable organizations overlap, get in each others way, rarely act in connection with the overseer. Permit the latter to shape the work, give him the opportunity of being consulted and of formulating plans, and many of the blunders that are the fruitage of our haphazard charities would be eliminated.

Lastly we ought to stimulate the social conscience. The overseer and the social worker are not handicapped to-day because the public is callous, but we do need an educational campaign. A community should have its interest aroused by personal visits to the needy and its mind enlightened from the platform and the pressroom. The old notion that the poor are a curse or an unmitigated nuisance must be exploded. The apostolic maxim "None of us liveth to himself" is still applicable to social conditions, and as soon as every member of the community lives up to this gospel, just so soon will the relief problem be clarified and lifted to its proper plane.

DOCTOR INGHAM—It is more blessed to give than to receive. It is you who have the blessing of giving, for I am afraid we haven't very much to give in connection with these discussions. They say, certain lewd fellows of the baser sort, that our method in New Brunswick, "As it was in the beginning, is now and ever shall be, world without end," and I am rather in hopes that the coming of this Conference may aid in changing that method. There has got to be a change.

The speaker before the last made some mention of the side of prevention, namely, through the teaching of thrift. We did have one local charity organization society long before I became a resident of this city. We did have, through the work of Mrs. James Nelson, in connection with our charity organization so-

ciety, a rather persistent and well considered and long continued effort to teach the habit of saving. I happen to have the record before me, and in the course of some fourteen years that it was continued there were upwards of two thousand savers, and the amount that passed through the hands of the society in that way was upwards of twenty-two thousand dollars, and there is testimony here, certainly in one case where it had a very large part in contributing to the success of a young man who was taught by this effort the possibility of saving. It opened the way to him to a career that was worth while, and I wish there might have been time for us to know if there are societies that are still doing something of that sort. I believe there were difficulties which arose concerning the bank laws, and in other ways the enterprise was discontinued, but it does seem as though much has been said on other lines of the matter of prevention. Here is something we ought all to consider when we teach the young man or young woman to begin the habit of saving. We are preventing these very evils that have been spoken about.

I did feel as though this might well be said as a tribute to one whose memory we cherish, one who wrought faithfully and well in other years in our city, and who has gone on to her reward. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—Before the meeting adjourns, I want to extend to the ladies and gentlemen an invitation to come to Trenton next year any time, if you will. I think you will see something that will be interesting on all lines of municipal development as well as social work. I know you will render great assistance to us there in bringing about some things we have been working on. We have been trying to get together. We have had experts from Newark, Cleveland, Philadelphia and New York, and we are still talking about it. We haven't gotten together, but a conference like this in Trenton would do more than anything else to bring us together. We are looking for something fine, better than anybody has got yet, but we don't want to adopt the Cleveland system, the Newark system or the New Brunswick system. We are struggling for better things, and I hope you will see your way clear to come to Trenton next year.

Tuesday Afternoon, April 27th, 1915.

Topic: "Hospital Work in New Jersey."

DR. GORDON K. DICKINSON, JERSEY CITY, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—I see I am on the program for a talk on the hospitals of the State. What that has to do with charities does not occur to me just now, but I will endeavor to interest you in them. I do not believe there is a person here who knows what a hospital is. You have your impressions. You think it is a horrible place, a place where you go and get cut up, and come out saying, "It is a fine place, but—" The hospitals have to be understood, and to be understood you must know something of their history, for there is something back of all these institutions which is well worth knowing.

Not until the time of Christ, or thereabouts, did we have hospitals, and now we are using this term for many kinds of institutions. Before Christ there were what were called hospitals. They were wonderful buildings, most beautiful places of Grecian architecture. The poor people were strewn along the roadside in the daytime. Passersby, who were travelers, would stop, look at one or the other, and say, "I remember somebody over yonder who had something like this, something was done for him, and he got better," and then they would try it. We have the same thing happening to-day, because human nature cannot get away from itself. We doctors, if we have a patient, study him, think over the case, and consult concerning it. The woman next door consults over the fence, and sometimes gets better results than we do.

The Christian era brought changes, for you know Christ did something nobody else did, that is, got down to the poor. He gave the poor man religion, and He gave him a hospital, marking an epoch in the history of hospitals. One of the first to build a hospital institution was a woman in northern Italy, Countess

Abiola, who went about ministering to the poor and doing nursing. She started that which was an approach to our present institutions, but the people had to change. The viewpoint had to change. Men did not comprehend what disease was, what good treatment was, what good nursing meant, and, as a consequence, had to wait for an epidemic to occur.

First we had the Reformation, which liberated the soul, then the French Revolution, which liberated the body, and after that the Renaissance, which had its work. The effect of conditions at the time of the Renaissance led up to a condition of mind whereby medicine was changed, and the people began to demand things instead of taking what was forced on them.

Medicine changed; nursing changed, but, like everything else, we never make progress until we have a calamity, and the calamity in this instance was the Crimean War. That gave us Florence Nightingale, that gave us scientific nursing, but hospitals remained the same. They were closed. They were tight. Windows were shut, light and air were kept out, and we had in them all kinds of fevers and contagious diseases and pus and death. Then came another calamity, our own war, and out of our own came the modern hospital. As many deaths as we had in the fields in the South we have saved a million lives to one lost there, because the hospitals in the South were so crowded they had not enough beds in them, and fearing that the death rate would be increased, put their patients out in tents. To the contrary, they found the death rate diminished, and, conceiving an idea, the architects since then have been erecting hospitals that are helping us cure our cases instead of helping the patients to die.

This brought us to our senses, and made us think instead of giving way to our emotions. Then came the present-day science; logical thought; a comparison of cause and effect; an effort to look into the reason why, and we shift aside the superstitions and old conventions, and know what is the best, and apply it. This is science. The modern hospital is the hospital where you have open windows and sunshine, where you have the nurse and cheerfulness and encouragement, where you have all that goes

to make the soul and body and the mind happy, and here we have recoveries that could not otherwise have been.

All the hospitals to-day are obliged to retain some of the back things, because human nature is always the same. Every man is, to a certain extent, superstitious. Every man is, to a certain extent, conventional. Every man has, to a certain extent, some of the brute in him. So our hospitals are bound to express a great deal of the history of the past. They are bound to be ruled, to a certain extent, by religious emotions, and they should be. They are bound to be ruled, to a certain extent, by selfishness and politics, and they should be. They are bound to be affected and controlled by scientific thought and measures, efficiency, and they should be. And that man is successful and that community is successful in hospital work that recognizes all these things, sees that each hospital has them properly combined, and aids in building it up.

We have in this State some fifty hospitals. We do not know how many sanatoria. A sanatorium is a new thing. It is an incomplete hospital. It is an inefficient hospital. It is generally a makeshift. It sometimes means a purse hospital, a place where a man thinks more of his pocketbook than he does of the welfare of the patients. There are others, of course, working up toward the highest hospital place of complete efficiency, but as yet they are not under the control of the law and have not been registered.

We have in the American Medical Association a committee appointed to investigate hospitals, and in our State society last year a committee was appointed to investigate the hospitals in New Jersey. We are at it now. Ultimately we will have a standardization, probably in the course of a year or two, when we become better acquainted with the duties and with ourselves, and with what the public demands, for back of all, of course, is the public. The superintendent of every hospital is the public; the manager of all institutions is the public. They get what they should have. Of these hospitals some are politically run by the State. They have a specified amount appropriated every year, never quite sufficient, consequently, cannot reach the limit of efficiency. Others are run by philanthropic societies or by chari-

ties. They are most efficient because they never care whether they are in debt or not. They go ahead and spend money, and get that which is best for the patients, trusting in the Lord, and the Lord always helps them out of their difficulties. I never saw a philanthropic hospital yet that went to the wall. It is only those which are run for cash.

And, then, of course, we have the city institutions. As yet we have not been able to go all over the State and pick out the good and the bad. They are all of them endeavoring to become top notch.

Why, even at the last Legislature our State fell in line with Pennsylvania, so that there are now but two States in the Union enforcing the law prohibiting a young man from practicing medicine in the State unless he has had at least one year's service in a recognized hospital. We have to work hard to determine which of our hospitals are good and which are not, which efficient and which not, and where the patient can go, not for treatment, but for diagnosis.

We have passed the wave of treatment, and another big one is coming, for the day will soon be at hand when people will say, "What is the matter with you?" and "Why is it the matter with you?" If you have tuberculosis, you want to know it. But how did you happen to get it when somebody else did not? If you have pneumonia, why did you get it? If you have cancer and appendicitis, why? You want to know why. That is coming and that will be discovered in our best institutions, and the young man cannot practice in this State who does not go through a properly graded hospital.

This is where your body can help us. You must formulate public opinion. The President says you ought to be neutral; that is, you cannot go out and do things. But you must not be neutral in this case. You must work, go back to your homes and inquire, "Is this hospital of ours properly equipped for a competent diagnosis, equipped with proper apparatus and proper laboratories?" If not, talk for it until you get it. "Is this place giving the patients the best, and that best promptly?" If not, work for it. Some day you will be there yourself and will be

sorry if you delay, if they do not know just what ails you and have to find out. It is a dangerous way. It is an old-fashioned way, and has gone with the past. We want each of you to go to your homes and do all in your power to lift your local hospitals to a high grade. If not, we will grade them for you, and publish the result, and you would not like to see your institution classed as C or D when it might have been at the top. I thank you. (Applause.)

The first speaker on the program is Miss Grace Harper, of the Massachusetts General Hospital, the hospital we like to go to when we want to study.

Miss Harper related the work of the social service department, how it was at first received skeptically, then tolerated, and finally adopted as a necessary part of the treatment at the dispensary. She told how the patients were received and how discharged, the visits to the home and the co-operation with other agencies.

THE CHAIRMAN—Professor Cabot, of Boston, you have all heard talk, I presume, on the same topic. It has been his one fad, or hobby, or great pleasure of life, to develop the social service working from the hospital dispensary. I am sure that in the future, when we get our hospitals up to where they should be, that none will be complete without a good corps of social workers. We get a person partly well and send them home and do not follow them. I know from experience we do not get the best results. The home doctor does not know how to care for the case. He does not comprehend the proper type of treatment. There must be some correlation between the hospital and the patient after the patient leaves, and that can be only done by the social worker.

I go to my hospital and I say, "We want a social worker," and they say, "We can't afford it." I presume you will go to yours and say, "We must have a social worker," and they say, "We can't afford it," but they will vote money for something else which is not nearly as important. Politicians say that what

is worth having is worth howling for. Make everybody dislike you, but get that social service for your hospital.

I now take pleasure in introducing Dr. Goldstein, of New York.

REFERRED TO SOCIAL SERVICE DEPT.

BY DR. *Lee*

Reason referred (i. e. what does the patient need?)

Well advanced Plummer
not entirely hopeless
was told today for first time
he had "Ph."

R. J. Lee.

REFERRED TO SOCIAL SERVICE DEPT.

BY DR. *H. K. Marks*

Reason referred (i. e. what does the patient need?)

Patient has Angina Pectoris.
Possibility of sudden death.
Needs light work Has a
wife and four children to
support.

The above is from the Third Annual Report of Dr. Cabot's work in the Massachusetts General Hospital and shows the futility of dispensary diagnosis and treatment without the social worker to follow up the patient in the home to see that he is properly placed or receives the proper care.

OF CHARITIES AND

"After-Care at Bellevue"

DR. SIDNEY GOLDSTEIN, 1

Mr. Chairman and members of the Board, I am glad to be attending to Boston, which is after all the center of medical social service, I can scarcely say New York, which at the very best can only imitate the principle of Boston and Dr. Cabot and the people who are working with him there.

I know that Dr. Cabot founded the Medical Social Service in 1905. I know that New York City does not allow Boston to remain very much behind.

Before coming to the platform I thought not I should assume that the Conference was in the advanced class of medical social service. My secretary said to me, "You had better assume that you are in the elementary class," so I am going to say what I am going to say I am afraid much like the minister whose little girl asked the embarrassing question: "Does your father preach his sermon twice?" After meditating for a while I think he does, but he hollers in one place and goes to try and holler in different places, if it will help you to get more hope that you will howl afterwards in the same way.

I suppose that the simplest definition of medical social service to-day is this, That medical care of the sick, and it is based, I think, on the principle that Miss Harper has defined as doing more to a sick man than his sickness.

Now, that is a point that hospitals have before forgotten, or have forgotten to do, and have forgotten in New York City perhaps they are just beginning to do in New Jersey.

SERVICE DEPT.

Does the patient need?

Virginia Pedlons.
 sudden death.
 work has a
 four children to

Third Annual Report of Dr. Cabot's work in the hospital and shows the futility of dispensary diagnosis. A social worker to follow up the patient in the home placed or receives the proper care.

I feel very strongly that we ought to remind our physicians, and our hospital administrators, that after all the patient who enters the institution or who applies for treatment is something more than an individual. The very least of us is something more than an individual. The very least of us, I think, ought to be thought of in the words of Emerson, in terms of circles. Outside of the individual there is the circle of the family. Outside of the family there is the circle of the home. Outside of the home there is the circle of the neighborhood. Outside of the neighborhood, the occupation or industry; and outside of that, the largest circle of all, the social conditions that surround us.

Now, in any one of these circles may be found the method that may throw light on the difficulty that the doctor is trying to diagnose and may fail in diagnosing because he lacks the materials. In the circle may be found all the conditions that may prevent the patient from recovering in the way in which the patient should, and as Miss Harper has described to us in the illustration she has given.

Now, in these circles, what conditions must be brought to the attention of the doctor if the best work is to be done with out patients? It seems to me cruel to try to treat an infant in a hygiene clinic or in a dispensary for some intestinal condition when the trouble is not with the infant at all. What is the use of treating a baby for stomach trouble, as you would call it, treating the baby to-day and curing it within a week, let us say, and then within a month have that baby come back again for treatment again, and in the third and fourth month have the baby return? The trouble may not be with the baby at all. The probabilities are that the trouble is with the mother, and in this case if you treat the mother the baby will recover. Now that is a very simple principle we have worked out, if you treat the family the patient will get well. In a great many cases that is true.

I know in our infant hygiene clinic we have succeeded in reducing the infant mortality rate to about one in six. Out of one thousand babies we have lost only sixteen. In New York City that means something. I do not know what it may mean

in New Jersey, but it means this: that in addition to saving babies we have educated mothers. In fact we have saved babies only because we have educated mothers and educated them through the instructive visits of nurses to the mothers, or the visits of social workers to the mothers in order that they may learn how to care for babies.

You will be surprised to learn how few women care for babies properly. Now what is the use of treating a little girl, such as we have in Bellevue Hospital at the present time, twelve years of age, who is suffering with heart trouble, treating her in the hospital and ignoring the conditions that exist elsewhere? That little girl is lying in Bellevue Hospital at the present time, her little blue lips pinched, and her little pulse palpitating with the quick unequal beats of her heart, but what is the use of thinking of this child when we know that the family consists of a father and mother and eight children, including this little one; that the family of ten live in three rooms on the fourth floor of a little tenement down on the East Side. Now think what that means? Think of what it means to have the family living there, of the overcrowded rooms, of four people trying to sleep in one bed, of ten people trying to live upon what would be regarded as the minimum standard of Massachusetts for four or three, and then think of the long dark flights of stairs that that little girl has to climb every time she wants to get to the rooms and down again. Now that girl has been in the hospital three times, and it was only upon the third time that we discovered the home conditions.

Last night there appeared an article in one of the New York papers, just a notice of a few words to the effect that a child five years old, who had been left at home, had been burned to death, a little boy, a little cripple, five years of age, and the article went on to tell us that the father had been admitted to the hospital, that the mother had gone out to work and the older children had gone to school and locked the little fellow in the room. Now there is no reason for that tragedy. That tragedy ought not to have occurred, and I consider that upon our hands must rest the blood of murder, because we have neglected to look

into the home conditions and to save that child from the fate that overcame it.

We have to take care of the family as the unit. As Miss Harper has said, the family is the unit of treatment. The individual is not. The family is a unit of treatment for several reasons.

In the first place, sickness in one member of the family is a danger signal that there may be sickness in other members of the family. If one member of the family is ill with tuberculosis it is more than probable that other members of the family are infected. It is more than probable if the disease has not broken out the germ is there and the children are predisposed. I think it is now agreed that most cases of tuberculosis that develop in middle life are due to infections in childhood, and I think we ought to remember and we ought to look upon disease in one member as a danger signal of trouble in other members of a family, and it is our business to look upon the family as the unit and to treat the family as a unit.

Then the family ought to be treated as a unit for another reason. If one member is in the hospital there is danger that the rest of the family is in distress at home. We must not forget this fact, that admission to a hospital is only the climax of the case. It is not the beginning of the case. Men and women don't want to go to hospitals. They want to be treated at home if they can. If they go to a hospital it means that home resources are insufficient, and in almost every case the mother and the children are in need if the father is in the institution. If the mother is there her children are probably running around the streets, perhaps one of them is in danger of death.

There again I hope that some of you will realize just what this means, and I do hope that some of you will come to say that it is the business of the hospitals of New Jersey, the business of the dispensary, to take hold of this problem and to work it out. I know that there was a time when hospitals did not regard this as their work at all. There was a time when hospitals were merely cloisters in which the sick were allowed to rest, to die. A little later in the course of hospital development, when the

sciences of medicine and surgery developed, these cloisters were provided with medical assistants and were used as clinical materials. During the last few years a change has come over the institutions. I think the hospital is beginning to respond to the new spirit that is operating all over America, that is re-socializing all our so-called institutions. The prison is being socialized. The court is being socialized. The reformatory is being socialized. Even the churches and the synagogues are being socialized. Sometimes I think the government is being socialized. I venture to say that soon our social charities and agents will be socialized, at least the hospitals.

The hospital also is responding to this new spirit. The hospital is beginning to realize that it has a social function because it is a social institution, and because it is a social institution and has a social function it ought to interest itself in the social welfare and the social progress of men and women and children who are committed to its care for treatment. You want to know how to go about it? There are some medical social service departments in the country that are working in a strange way, at a great disadvantage. There are some medical social service departments that are only loosely related to the hospitals or to the dispensary. That was the condition in all hospitals some years ago. In fact that is the history of medical social service. At first this was tolerated on the doorstep and then it was admitted within the door, and finally it was allowed a table there inside one of the rooms, and then gradually it found its way nearer to the center, and in the best hospitals and dispensaries to-day, as in Massachusetts and some places in New York, it is looked upon as it should be, as an integral part of the institution, as just as much a part of the work of the hospital as is the treatment by physicians, or care by nurses, and that is the thing I wish to urge upon you, when you adopt medical social service please see to it that it is not the work of some affiliated agent or organization. Don't let it be as it was in New York at first, merely the work of the training school. I know that Miss Morgan and I both feel to-day that the social service department ought to be a part of the hospital, and not of the training school.

It is going to be more so I think within the next two or three years if we have any voice in the reorganization of the work. It ought to be a part of the institution, and I think that, if you will make it a part of the institution, you will probably want the co-operation, or perhaps the protesting co-operation at first, of the superintendent and the physicians, but please don't let that disturb you. If there is anything the doctors need to do it is to be socialized. The majority of physicians do not understand or do not see the social side of sickness or the social sign of sickness, and it is necessary that they should be taught it.

In the course of a few years they agree that they come to realize, as Dr. Cabot realized ten years ago, that they can't make a successful diagnosis, and they cannot carry out their treatment without the aid of the social service department and the social service work.

Now, where are you going to put your social service department? Those of you who are acquainted with the hospital dispensaries know we have what we call an admitting room, and probably in some places it is also the discharge room. That, to my mind, is the proper place for the social service department, right in the admitting room, in order that the social worker may see the patient as the patient comes in and also see the patient as the patient leaves. No patient ought to be admitted without a medical diagnosis, of course. So far as that is possible no patient ought to be admitted without a social diagnosis as well. No patient ought to be discharged unless the doctor discharges the patient; and no patient, in my mind, ought to be discharged unless a social worker is allowed to review the facts and see to it that the patient is going to the proper home and to the proper environment. Don't send your patients back to conditions that are responsible, or were responsible, for their trouble. Of what use is it, for example, to take a man who has tuberculosis and to send him to a sanatorium and then to allow him to return after four or five or six months to the same home conditions or same industrial environment that were responsible for his disease?

Now, we made an investigation of the discharged cases in one

sanatorium in New York State. I won't name it, for the good of the sanatorium. We found, by investigating the cases discharged over a period of three years, that fifty-two per cent. of the patients discharged relapsed within six months to a year after the time they left the institution. Now, do you know what that means? It means, first of all—and this is to the politicians of the State—that fifty-two dollars out of every hundred spent by the institutions for the care of the tuberculosis is wasted. Now, that is an economic reason for us to look into the social care of our patients. In the second place, it means this: That the patients are returning to the life of suffering from which they were taken and of which they were temporarily cured.

Then may I also call your attention to the fact that it is absurd, if it is not inhuman, to send a man to a sanatorium and to allow his wife and children to live in the condition from which he came. If you are going to take care of the man, why not take care of the wife and children? Why not move them from those conditions in the slums or wherever they may have been? Why not move the family and prepare the home, prepare the conditions, so that when the man does return he will return to conditions in which he will be probably safe? Now, that is the thing I wish you would think of in the social discharge of your cases. Don't allow your patients to leave unless you know the conditions to which they are going.

Within the last two or three weeks a rather serious situation has developed in one insane asylum in the State of New York, at least an institution that cares for the mentally deranged. Two women were discharged to people who represented themselves as their relatives, in one case as the husband and the other case as the uncle. The institution was crowded, the doctors were glad to have the patients go, and when an investigator sought the patients for the purpose of after-care neither the patient nor the person to whom the patient was discharged could be found, nor could the address be found. In one case there was a school building there, and the other case there was a factory. Now, don't you see what that means? That means that no patient ought to leave the institution until we are assured that the

patient is returning to a home and to conditions that are suitable and fit. That is why I ask you to place your social service department in the admitting and discharging room of the institutions.

Then another point. When you are about to establish a medical social service department may I ask you to equip your department completely. Now, to equip your department completely means only one thing, an expert medical social worker; that is the complete equipment. Now, you all can't have Miss Harper. I wish you could. You can't have Miss Campbell, and you can't have Dr. Cabot, but you can find somebody who has received a training similar to what they have and who will understand both the medical and social side of sickness. Now, that does not mean that a person who is a nurse understands it. Some nurses think that they can just become medical social service workers by assuming the title, but they can't. Some social service workers think that they can become medical social service workers by assuming the title, but they can't. Medical social service requires one who has an understanding and training on both sides, who understands the social side of sickness and who understands the medical side of sickness, and who is able to treat both, and treat both well, under the direction of the physician. Now, when you equip your department won't you try to select an expert, because I know that in many cities medical social service has failed and the doctors have become discouraged because of the inexperience and the inexpertness of the worker in charge of the department, so please remember those things when you establish medical social service.

Let us call your attention to another thing. Medical social service is going to do something for you. It is going to help the State of New Jersey, if it is done properly, to reformulate a very large and serious problem.

You may think that we understand sickness. We don't. Some doctors think they do, and I think they do from the point of view of bacteriology, serums, and so forth, but sickness, after all, is a social problem, isn't it? Sickness, after all, has its social causes. For example, you know that nine out of ten of us have had

tuberculosis at one time or another. Now, why is it so few of us have developed tuberculosis? We all have the germ, and nine out of ten have had lesions. The reason we have escaped is this, we have the resistance power to overcome it. In other words, tuberculosis is a disease of resistance. In order to escape tuberculosis, in order that those children who are infected may discard it, they must develop high resistance. There is only one way to develop high resistance, and that is to bring on a high standard of living, and there is only one way to maintain a high standard of living, and that is upon the basis of an adequate income. People don't want to live in the slums, and people don't want to develop tuberculosis. If they have sufficient income, they will move out, and they will save themselves. Now, if medical social service will do for you what it has done elsewhere, if it will write up the social histories of your cases as the doctors now write up the medical history of the cases, then you will understand sickness from the social side. You will resist sickness as a social problem, and then you will come to an understanding of the ways in which sickness may be prevented. Some cases of sickness may be prevented. Some cases may not. Occasionally nature slips, as I think it does in appendicitis, but in a large number of cases the social conditions are at fault.

In New York City at the present time we have never had such a large number of admissions to the psychopathic ward. Not since 1908 has the line gone up so high. Do you know why so many men and women are going insane at the present time in Manhattan? Do you know why it is that sixty-six and two-thirds per cent. of the people who are admitted to the psychopathic ward are under thirty-five years of age? For this reason, that there is a distinct relation between insanity and social strain. That is the thing that we have forgotten. If I can demonstrate the effect of social strain and malnutrition and worry and poor housing and all these things upon insanity, we shall come to understand how to remove one of the causes of this calamity that afflicts us at the present time.

In order to sum up, may I ask you now to please howl as loud as you can for medical social service in order that the hospitals

may come to understand their social duties, in order that the men, women and children committed to your care may have the social care which they require, as well as the medical needs, and in order that your communities may come to understand the problem of sickness, which is, after all, a problem of our social life. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN—A few years ago we started in Hudson county the tuberculosis fight from the side of treatment. We are now conducting it from the side of social disease, and we have, through Miss Allen, the clinic work and nurses, a very well established social service which I would like to speak of.

The next will be Miss Ruth Morgan, "Hospital Social Service from Volunteers' Point of View."

MISS MORGAN—It makes it very much easier to begin on the subject of volunteers in hospital social service work when Miss Harper has been kind enough to say we can work for them. That is very unusual. Nobody appreciates more thoroughly than I do the value of professional social service workers. I fully understand that their importance is still underestimated. They have the education of the public. They actually formulate the most important legislation, sometimes indirectly and sometimes directly, but I still claim that volunteers have a place, and I also claim that volunteers would like to have a place. Most volunteers are consigned at once to committees, and thus their duty is to howl when it is necessary, to howl to raise money and to represent the various forms of social service work in the community, but it seems to me that volunteers like real service, direct personal service more than this rather impersonal work which is usually offered to them.

At Bellevue the volunteer workers have arisen to the number of one hundred and fifty, and I would like to say that I think Dr. Goldstein, perhaps, did not like to mention this, that his work has been done largely by volunteers under his direction, and I have never seen such volunteers. They give days and they give weeks and months to it, and they have given years to it, and, perhaps, I might say that there is one lady who wished to make

a memorial to her daughter, and who conceived the idea of giving her own service as a memorial, and all I can say is it was a very remarkable piece of architecture.

In Massachusetts, generally, the volunteer workers have been trained, and I believe Miss Harper has stated there they have proved very valuable. That is, they are still limited to very definite pieces of work, and, no doubt, that is the better way. They, however, accompany the prisoners to court, especially the attempted suicide cases of which we have usually about two hundred a year in Bellevue Hospital. Those cases always have to appear in court to state to the magistrate for what reason they attempted this dreadful crime. There a volunteer can be very helpful, because it usually means sitting all day in the court rooms, and finally stating the case for the patient and assuming some responsibility for his or her future welfare. Also, a volunteer may supervise a case which has become more or less chronic, and may report from time to time to the worker what is happening to it. They may see the children get safely to the country; they may even provide places in the country for those children, but I would like to say that I think there is a future work for volunteers which might be very well developed in a smaller community. For instance, I think a report of the resources of the community would be valuable to the social service worker, a carefully prepared report. Some workers are very much interested in writing, and can write extremely well, and thereby relieve the professional to an extraordinary degree. We had an extraordinary map made for us by volunteers. This map, for instance, shows in our dispensary from where our children come. We wanted to know whether we were trying to cover too large a district, as there is no limit to the district from which patients may come. They placed little pins all over the island of Manhattan and the Bronx, in Long Island, and I wish very much that you could see the map. The pins extend miles, I may say, way up into West Chester county. It is also a very valuable work to the volunteers to attend a conference such as this, and do a great deal of reading. It is very hard for the professional workman to keep in touch with the literature on the subject, par-

ticularly hospital work. If any worker assigned to the hospital social service department were willing to read the books and pamphlets, they undoubtedly would become very well informed themselves, and would be a great help to them in doing the work.

I would like to say one thing that I read recently, namely, "That the health of the rural communities and of the smaller places is falling in comparison with the health of the cities." Dr. Biggs, in New York, is responsible for the statement that health is a purchasable article. Now, I wish that this conference would bear that in mind, because I do not see any reason why rural communities and the smaller cities might not purchase a little health too.

I, perhaps, would like to add one other story of a woman we had in Bellevue Hospital. That was so interesting a case that the doctor asked that she be retained a day or two because he wanted the woman examined by a number of surgeons. So she was detained, and she was very much worked up about being detained. She had to go to some distant point, and it required some three dollars to go there. She didn't have it, and for that reason alone she was sent to the social service office. She had a letter, and in the letter the employer said she was seriously inconvenienced because of the absence of this worker the three weeks that she remained in town, and if she did not get there, the employer would have to do the washing. We telephoned the surgeon. This was sort of an after chapter to his efforts, and he said for us not to let the patient return, and we were, fortunately, able to care for her.

DR. MIKELS—I might add a few remarks in regard to my personal impressions of the practical value of well-organized social service in connection with a psychopathic hospital. Miss Harper reviewed in a very comprehensive way the actual practice of the social workers in connection with the Massachusetts General Hospital. I think I can give the physicians' viewpoint of the efficiency of such service in connection with the psychopathic hospital of Boston, where I had occasion to make a special study of the methods of sociological work in connection with this hospital. I was assigned to the receiving room, and my first

case was an old woman of Gaelic extraction—at least she had a Gaelic accent to her dialect. She was picked up on the street by an officer. Her memory was clouded when she was brought to the hospital. She was sent to the psychopathic hospital by the sergeant of the precinct. When she arrived at the hospital she could give only her maiden name in a vague way, the street where she resided, and where one of her relatives resided. The important thing in this case was to get in touch with her relatives. She rambled on in her conversation about a son, and that led me to believe that she was the mother of children and had children somewhere in the city. I immediately got in touch with the social service of that institution, and reported the case to the Central Bureau of Charity Organizations. In a couple of days the identity of this patient was verified. She had on previous occasions received aid from other charity organizations. After she had received the regular course of treatment for eliminating the poisons resulting from her intoxication and had regained a clearer flow of ideas and recollections, she was returned to one of her relatives.

This shows the value of social service for obtaining the identity of patients. It occurs very often, even at Morris Plains, that we get patients without any identity who have been picked up in Hoboken, Jersey City or Newark. They are arrested, examined by the police surgeon, and sent to us for treatment as Jane Does and John Does. I think we have about seventeen John Does in our institution and several Jane Does. If we had had a social service organization we undoubtedly would have been able to clear up their identity and return them to their relatives as soon as they recovered from their mental disease.

The suggestion that we should start in and howl for social service is a good one. The phrase "follow up," used by Miss Harper, I think, is a very appropriate slogan. "Follow up" in the mercantile world, where men are striving for a higher order of efficiency, has become a byword. When a new project is started in a mercantile enterprise they have a well-organized system of following up to guarantee the efficiency of the service. If we make the social service an integral part of our general

hospital and all special hospitals, we can increase the efficiency of the medical staff by following up every lead we get in obtaining an authentic history of the patient and his environment.

I never realized the full value of this work until I came in touch with the social work at the Psychopathic, and I found myself depending in some cases entirely upon the report of the social service worker before I could arrive at a logical diagnosis of the case. I recall one case that brought about a rather dramatic setting in the staff meeting. A young girl—a beautiful specimen of feminine humanity—about fifteen years of age, was picked up on the busy streets of Boston in the late hours of the night and taken to the police court. Her residence was in one of the suburbs. This child had been away from home about four or five days, had consorted with men, and was consequently brought before the juvenile court for a disposition of her case. The judge referred her to the Psychopathic Hospital for observation to determine whether she was a defective delinquent, an imbecile, or a person morally responsible for her demeanor. This child received a psychological examination in the outpatient department by a special trained psychologist. She received an eugenic examination by the field worker, who looked up the heredity of her family. She received an euthenic examination by the social service worker, who went to her home and made a special investigation of the conditions under which that child was living. This social service worker also went to the school where that child had been in attendance and conferred with the principal of the school. The child received a thorough physical examination by one of the physicians and a mental examination by the alienist.

In the staff meeting we had this setting: The child was seated among friends and she was convinced, after she had been there a week, that everybody was trying to co-operate in helping her out of her predicament. The social service worker gave a report of her findings, the eugenic worker of her facts, the physicians of her diagnosis. The principal of the school was called upon to give her version of the child's behavior. After the patient was dismissed from the staff meeting, a very long dis-

cussion followed. Everyone entered into the discussion of that case—the school teacher, the social service worker; several of the physicians, and the chief-of-staff, who gave a very interesting resumé of the case. Some disposition had to be made of the child. Under ordinary conditions the child would have been sent to a girls' reformatory, or some other place, where she would have been thrown into association with older offenders, who would have probably permanently demoralized her. The solution of this particular problem was a social one. It was resolved that this child should be returned, not to her own home, where her father and mother were getting along with a great deal of discord, but to her grandmother, who agreed to take care of the child, give her proper treatment and education.

I might go on and state a great many cases like this, but I haven't the time. In concluding, I wish to emphasize the importance of making the social service an integral part of every general and special hospital that we have in this State, and I think it is going to be accomplished within a few years because there is a great deal more interest shown in this problem of social service by the medical societies. (Applause.)

MRS. JACOBSON—I think we should have social service in our State institutions, State hospitals, county hospitals and private hospitals, but the taxpayers are already howling, and I do not know a charity organization society in the State of New Jersey that has enough money to do the work. Where is the money going to come from for this very much needed work? I believe we could get money for social service workers, but the great follow-up work which comes after that, the changing of the environment, and all of that particular part of the work, where is it going to come from? Surely the State is not going to give it, and the counties are not going to give it, and the individuals are not going to give it. Now what are we going to do? It is a practical question after all.

THE CHAIRMAN—The big politicians of the State tell me that all these social reforms and changes that are coming are going to demand a new method of taxation, and the property owner

must expect, if he is going to have a whole lot given him, to submit to a different tax and a larger tax.

The next on the program is Dr. English, on "After-care of Tuberculous Cases."

"After-Care of the Tuberculous."

DR. SAMUEL B. ENGLISH, SUPERINTENDENT OF STATE
SANATORIUM, GLEN GARDNER.

My experience of eight years at the State Sanatorium convinces me that while the after-care of the discharged patient is necessary, much more thought should be given to the detection of the disease in the early stages. The question should be, "How can the early case be more efficiently gotten hold of and made self-sustaining?" We certainly should look with chagrin when we are continually talking of tuberculosis as both curable and preventable.

When one comes to consider that in the life of the State Sanatorium about 7,500 applicants have applied for admission, and but 3,660 could, by giving them all benefit of the doubt, be classified as eligible, something is radically wrong and some more definite plan should be formulated that the early cases, even before bacilli can be demonstrated, are gotten under treatment.

It has been my lot to send out after treatment since 1907, with various degrees of success, nearly 2,000 patients, of whom 596 had incipient disease, of which 458, or 77 per cent. are at present self-sustaining. Eight hundred and one of this number had disease more advanced, or as classified by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, as moderately advanced; of these 340, or 42 per cent., are self-sustaining. But of those having advanced disease, only 10 per cent. are working.

These figures would be larger if we were able to locate some not accounted for, and if some method could be devised to compel patients to allow the State to carry out the treatment for

a sufficient length of time, still more and lasting results could be obtained. The statistics from any tuberculosis sanatorium will show that the ability to secure permanent results is usually in inverse ratio to the extent of the disease.

When we consider that the entire convalescence of the patient is financed by the State, it appears that those receiving the benefit and which could be obtained no other way, should be willing to submit to a residence away from home much longer than many will do.

Since the tuberculosis propaganda is not a philanthropic, but an economic, problem, it appears that more strenuous measures should be taken to secure treatment in the early stages, as we all know that treatment in the far greater number of those with advanced disease does not cure or even render self-sustaining, but simply prolongs the inevitable end, and after discharge or refusal to continue treatment allows the bacilli-laden victim to return to his old haunts and continue the chain of infection. These conditions are, however, slowly changing; but until further progress has been made, some permanent means should be devised to help those not permanently improved.

The future of the crusade, that it may continue to be a success, depends, I believe, upon the care and education of the children and the isolation of all careless open cases in such families as have children, as beyond question the disease is almost invariably contracted in infancy or early childhood, and these children of to-day will, under our present conditions, fill our beds within a short time. It is also possible to drill each school child in the elementary principles of sanitation as applied to tuberculosis, so that in addition to keeping them safeguarded, they assist, in no small way, the whole family.

The advice given to patients must vary with their condition. I personally have but little sympathy with those who advise following treatment, a change of occupation and a rearrangement of his economic conditions. In the greater number of patients they are either able to return to their previous vocation or too ill to do anything. It is not so much the eight to ten hours' work that brings about the relapse, as the stress incident to find-

ing the easy job with less wages, and if found the dissatisfaction and worry due to inability to meet the burdens as formerly. Most patients, if permitted to take the cure early, and if continued until discharged, can successfully withstand the ordinary day's labor if at the end of the day the balance of the time is spent at rest. I usually say to the patient at discharge, "Your future lies mostly in your own hands. You can either work or play, but not both, if your present condition is to be maintained."

The sanatorium endeavors, in so far as is possible, to prepare the patient for work following his discharge, by the use of graduated exercises and work done as prescribed, and should I believe become responsible, in so far as we can, for the conduct and care of the ex-patients. Under present conditions this is impossible, except through the co-operation of the private and semi-private associations and anti-tuberculosis leagues.

The subsequent history and ability to care for one's self depends to a great extent on the size and activity of the lesion and the ability and desire of the patients to co-operate. Much undue trouble and anxiety has, however, been caused by a firm belief on the part of the patients that they should not for a long period following discharge, do any work whatever. All possible effort should on our part be exerted that the patient may on discharge resume some means of making a livelihood.

The very nature of the disease is such as in many cases a relapse must be looked for. Patients should at discharge be advised to be ever on the guard for any evidence of returned activity, and a promise held out to them that if the given instructions are followed, they may expect assistance in the way of readmission to bridge them over what may otherwise become the beginning of a fatal termination.

Another cause of relapse, and which must be kept, is the poverty and ignorance of so many ex-patients. They may have improved when under strict institutional discipline, but, as soon as allowed discharge, form a large class of those constantly needing constant supervision, even after great effort and sums have been expended on them.

If some scheme could be devised whereby in connection with

our institution for early cases, some profitable industries could, under proper supervision, be maintained, I believe a long step toward the supervision of our after-history problem would be solved. We have at Glen Gardner recently opened, on a small scale, a workshop wherein patients may purchase for cost material that they can make into useful articles for sale and thereby derive some profit. This we hope may stimulate a desire to remain longer under treatment, and also relieve the financial stress at home, so often the cause of termination of treatment, that would have resulted favorably.

The beginning of an experiment such as ours is, however, badly handicapped by the exaggerated fear on the part of the laity that the disease may be carried.

Some tuberculosis institutions have employed a visiting nurse or investigator to find positions for the sanatorium ex-patients. As far as I know, however, this has not succeeded.

There will always continue to be a greater number needing constant supervision following treatment. Some investigators say that most of the far-advanced patients will die within one year after discharge, and that those with somewhat less disease will either die or pass the crises within four years.

It appears a mistake, if the first class will die in one year, to discharge them. Should they not be kept under institutional care till the end? For the second class all the assistance possible, by way of dispensary care, visiting nurse, etc., should be extended. The only solution that I can see is through the treatment of the early case before the lesions become open. After that time 40-50% of the cases will continue to progress and die in spite of any possible assistance.

DR. WILLIAM J. DOUGLASS, SUPT. TUBERCULOSIS DEPT., ESSEX
COUNTY HOSPITAL FOR CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

Dr. Douglass said in part:

One of the big mistakes which has been made in the tuberculosis problem is that we have regarded it in too great measure as a medical problem, when in reality it is to a larger degree an

economic problem, and so when we come to speak of the care of a tuberculous patient after he has left the hospital it is not nearly so important to plan means whereby he can have adequate medical supervision as it is to adopt measures whereby that patient may be enabled to have the proper food and surroundings to enable him to retain whatever benefit the hospital has conferred upon him, and to take his place once more as a useful member of society.

We keep a man in a hospital for from four to twelve months, improve him physically to the point where, if his disease is not absolutely cured, it is, at least, in a stage where, under proper conditions, it will never reassert itself, and then discharge him. At the hospital he has been well fed, well clothed, well housed. He leaves the hospital and looks for a position. With the stigma of tuberculosis upon him it is not easy to secure a position suitable to his physical condition. To be without work means to be without the good food, the good housing, the good everything which he has been accustomed to in the hospital; and what happens? In three or four months he is back where he started from, and all the money which the city, county and State has spent upon him is absolutely wasted.

There is another fact to be remembered. As a class, these patients, before they became ill, did not need or receive charity. If they be aided to secure proper employment, they will not ask for or need financial aid. It is practically only in this intermediary stage when assistance is necessary, and it seems to me that in Newark, at least, with its fifty-seven charitable organizations, this might be accomplished.

Employment Needed.

The question of securing of employment for patients leaving our institutions is undoubtedly one of the most difficult phases of the whole problem of after care. A large percentage of discharged cases, by the very nature of their disease, cannot return to their accustomed occupation or trade. They are barred from a large number of other positions by the reluctance of employers

to give employment to tuberculous cases, irrespective of whether the disease is arrested or not, and by the unwillingness of fellow employes, in a large number of cases, to work with these men.

If we could in some manner establish a central employment bureau for our State, county and municipal tuberculosis institutions, to which all discharged patients could be referred, we would probably be taking the most practical step possible in the solution of this problem.

Evening Clinic.

In line with this, if we would establish a joint clinic one evening each week, where all discharged cases from all institutions might report once a month or twice a month for observation, advice and whatever medical treatment is necessary, we would undoubtedly prevent a large percentage of these discharged patients from applying for readmission to the tuberculosis hospital. It cannot fail to appeal to anyone of intelligence that it is the acme of shortsightedness to spend thousands of dollars in our endeavors to restore tuberculous patients to health, and then to refuse to spend an infinitely smaller amount more to enable them to retain their health.

The State of New Jersey is doing its share in the Fight Against Tuberculosis. You know that the county of Essex has done well, and is contemplating even greater things. But for the present we must look to the organized charities, which you represent, to take up this great question of the after care of the tuberculous and carry it to a successful fruition.

Remarks of Acceptance.

PRESIDENT-ELECT DR. DAVID F. WEEKS.

Members of the Conference, I assure you that I appreciate deeply the honor and compliment you have paid me in electing me your presiding officer, and assure you that my best energies will be put forth for a successful Conference the coming year. The subject chosen for the next year's Conference will, we think, be one that will make it possible to have a real live Conference, in which all of us will be interested. We ask each of you to ask yourselves, between now and the next Conference, how "mental deficiency" affects your work; what part does it play in your daily activities. Think of it from the standpoint of cause, effect, and suggest the remedial measures which you think should be taken. I think that every one of us can realize what an important and interesting subject this will be, and how far reaching it is, and of what great importance it will be to the State if all the agencies represented here study this subject and bring to the next Conference the many, many facts which they will collect.

It has been thought advisable to have two additional committees appointed for the next Conference; one of them being a Committee on Exhibits, the other a Committee on Co-operation. The idea of having our Exhibit Committee appointed early is that the chairman may get in touch with all the different agencies throughout the State, and have an exhibit showing the cause, effect and the remedy to be applied to meet the problem of mental deficiency.

I will at this time appoint the chairman of the various committees, and leave to them the selection of the other members for their own committee. With the exception of the Program Committee, I would suggest that they be limited to three members. As chairman of the Program Committee I will appoint Professor E. R. Johnstone; of the Finance Committee, Isaac C. Ogden; of the Time and Place Committee, Seymour L. Cromwell; of the Committee on Exhibits, Dr. Frank Mikels; of the Committee

on Co-operation, Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson; as chairman of the special committee which your Resolution Committee just recommended I will appoint Mr. Robert Flemming, and will ask that the report which is to be submitted, according to the resolution before February first, not only contain a report of conditions as found but recommendations for the remedy of conditions reported.

I will also appoint at this time as delegates to the National Conference at Baltimore Mrs. F. S. Jacobson, Mrs. H. Otto Wittpenn and Mrs. Sidney M. Colgate.

Again I wish to thank you for the honor you have conferred upon me, and ask your hearty assistance and co-operation in the work of the year ahead of us. Any suggestions that will make the next Conference a most successful one will be gratefully received by me and have my careful consideration.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

The Committee on Resolutions begs leave to report as follows:

"Resolved, That the President be authorized to appoint a special committee on juvenile delinquency, to make a survey of the matter and report to the Executive Committee and Advisory Board not later than February first next, this report, upon approval, to be printed and presented at the next Conference."

"Resolved, That the Fourteenth Annual Conference wishes to express its appreciation and gratitude to all of the local agencies which have done so much for the comfort of members and delegates and the success of the meeting. We wish especially to thank the officers and clergy of the Second Reformed Church, the officers of Rutgers College and all of the ladies who were so cordial and helpful in the preliminary planning for this Conference and for their hospitality during the meetings."

Respectfully submitted,

E. R. JOHNSTONE,
DAVID F. WEEKS, M.D.,
MRS. SIDNEY M. COLGATE,
MISS JENNIE LOIS ELLIS,
C. L. STONAKER.

Report of Committee on Nominations.MRS. H. OTTO WITTPENN, *Chairman*,

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(See page 11 for Officers, Executive Committee and Advisory Board of 1916 Conference.)

1916 Conference, Hoboken, May —, 1916.

Treasurer's Statement.

June 25, 1915.

RECEIPTS.

Balance brought forward,	\$1,153 54
Received from 387 contributors,	1,703 10
Interest on bank balances,	16 93
	<hr/>
	\$2,873 57

DISBURSEMENTS.

Expenses of Conference,	\$1,558 93
Balance in bank,	1,314 64
	<hr/>
	\$2,873 57

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HENRY L. DEFORD, *Treasurer.*

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July 6th, 1915. Audited and found correct.

(Signed) HENRY L. DEFORD,

For Auditing Committee.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

*High School, Hoboken,
April 30th, May 1st, 2d, 1916*

The Conference Maintains An Open Forum for the Discussion of Advanced
Ideas and Suggestive Steps. It Does Not, However, Commit Itself
to Any Definite Policy or Formulate Any Platform.

TRENTON, N. J.
MACCRELLISH & QUIGLEY CO., STATE PRINTERS.

1916

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David F. Mueb

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1916

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PREFACE.

Some of those who attended the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction at Hoboken with the assurance that feeble-mindedness was the cause of most of our crimes, social ills and inefficiency, came away with the feeling that perhaps much of the so-called mental deficiency was not inherent. Proper vocation training may equip the unfit for useful occupation; proper mechanical devices, such as eyeglasses, may remove nervous tension and proper environment may prevent crimes.

That there was need of greater education of our people, especially in preventing the feeble-minded from mating, was apparent. The necessity for greater accommodation in our institutions, and more money to equip and run them, was brought out.

As an antidote for the mentally depressing subject was the trip to Hudson County Colony and the numerous social gatherings, with opportunities to become acquainted. A unique feature was a round-table conference with tea at Castle Point, each delegate choosing one of the four sections which appealed to him most.

The section meetings on Child Welfare and Housing had good programs and were well attended.

E. D. E.

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NEW JERSEY STATE CONFERENCE

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Next Conference, Montclair, April, 1917.

Sociological Exhibits.

In connection with the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

Arranged and Prepared by the Exhibit Committee Assisted by the Local Committee.

A special exhibit on Mental Deficiency was on view in the High School daily from 9 A. M. It consisted of special charts from the various insane hospitals and other institutions and an exhibit loaned by the Mental Hygiene Committee of the New York State Charities Aid Association.

The following institutions and organizations contributed:

State Hospital at Trenton,
 The State Hospital at Morris Plains,
 The New Jersey State Institution for Feeble-Minded, Vineland,
 The Village for Epileptics at Skillman,
 New Jersey Reformatory, Rahway,
 Essex County Hospital, Cedar Grove,
 The Training School at Vineland, New Jersey,
 The New Jersey State Home for Girls, Trenton,
 New Jersey State Reformatory for Women, Clinton,
 Office of the County Physician of Hudson County,
 State Charities Aid Association, New York.

OPENING MEETING.

Sunday, April 30th, 1916, 3 P. M.

General Topic: "Mental Deficiency in Its Relation to Social Problems."

INVOCATION.

REV. EUGENE P. CARROLL, M.R., HOBOKEN.

"We pray Thee, O Almighty and Eternal God, who through Jesus Christ hast revealed Thy glory to all the nations, to assist with Thy Holy Spirit of Counsel this Conference that it may be eminently useful to the people of this city and State.

"Let the light of Thy divine wisdom direct the deliberations of this convention in all its proceedings, that they may lead to the promotion of happiness, the increase of industry, sobriety and knowledge, and perpetuate among us the blessings of that charity which Thy Divine Son brought into the world. Amen."

After a selection by the Hoboken High School Orchestra, the President announced that the Honorable Mayor Griffin was out of town and had sent his Secretary, Hon. John F. Lewis, to give a word of welcome.

Word of Welcome.

JOHN F. LEWIS.

Ladies and gentlemen: I regret very much the absence of Mayor Griffin from the city, which imposes upon me the duty of addressing a word of welcome to you. From me it will be merely a word. I say I regret it because I know how dear to the heart of Mayor Griffin are movements that have for their object the amelioration of conditions under which the poor and the indigent live; conditions that exist without any blame from those who are made to suffer by them. It is always very

encouraging to find men and women, such as you, who feel it a high sense of duty to engage yourselves in bettering these conditions, to encourage by your helpful co-operation the introduction of good citizenship and happiness, which makes life worth the while.

You are meeting in a city that is very zealous in doing its part to benefit this condition. Aside from hospitals and orphan asylums, there is a movement now under way under the direction of the United Aid Society to provide for the dependent children given to their care a better and larger home. It will soon have a home that will give to the children all that the State wants it to have.

I don't know that there is very much I can give to you other than to say that whatever this convention wants to suggest to the city administration for the benefit of conditions, you will find the best efforts of Mayor Griffin and the city commissioners at your service.

Response to Words of Welcome.

PRESIDENT WEEKS—I regret to announce that the Commissioner of Charities and Correction, Hon. Richard Stockton, has been unable to be with us this afternoon, but sends regrets and his greetings to the Conference.

Mr. Lewis, we appreciate the welcome that you have extended to the Conference in behalf of the Mayor of Hoboken. We hope that the influence of this Conference will be such that some good will result. We realize that you have in your city many problems confronting you. We realize, as Mr. Lewis has just stated, that much is being done in this city to meet these conditions. It has been a practice of the Conference in times past to meet in various points of the State with a view to interesting people in those parts of the State. Recently we have been meeting in college towns and cities, believing that much good in solving these problems will come through educating the students of rising generations who must take our places. We realize the problems confronting all of us are serious ones and we can only

touch them at points, but if we can interest our college students, our school boys and girls, we will see great good accomplished.

We thank you for the welcome to your city and hope the citizens of Hoboken will avail themselves of the opportunity to attend our meetings and enter into discussions of the subjects which will be presented from time to time.

Mental Deficiency in Its Relation to Social Problems.

BY DAVID FAIRCHILD WEEKS, M.D., SUPERINTENDENT, THE NEW JERSEY STATE VILLAGE FOR EPILEPTICS AT SKILLMAN.

Fellow members of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, permit me at the outset to thank you for the great honor which you have conferred upon me in choosing me to preside over your deliberations during this Conference.

It seems to me peculiarly appropriate that this Conference, composed, as it is, of persons engaged in various phases of social and charitable work that brings them in close touch with all classes of dependents, should have chosen for discussion the important subject of "Mental Deficiency in Its Relation to Social Problems."

In the time available for the few remarks, which it is my privilege to present for your consideration, I will make no attempt to define clearly the distinctions between insanity, epilepsy, feeble-mindedness, pauperism, prostitution and crime, but will group all these classes and refer to them as the "mentally deficient."

To point to the primary origin of mental defect is as impossible as to state from whence came the original grain of wheat. It may arise from any number of conditions interfering with normal development of the child. Heredity, malnutrition, accident, neglect and disease play their parts, both before and after birth, but by far the most potential factor in the cause of mental deficiency is heredity.

The parents of mental defectives or the members of their immediate families show evidence of degeneracy or inferiority.

with a large number of cases of insanity, epilepsy, inebriety, feeble-mindedness, crime, drug habituates, alcoholics, sex offenders, retardates and delinquents in their pedigrees.

In ancient writings allusion was seldom made to mental defect, which to-day is called feeble-mindedness. The Greek poets and tragedians made frequent mention of visitation of acute forms of madness and delirium and referred to epilepsy under the term "Morbus Sacer," ascribing some of these visitations to inspiration and others to the anger of the gods.

The earliest glimmering of our modern conception of the heredity of degeneracy is to be found in the writing of Hippocrates, who pointed out that epilepsy produced in the ancestors by traumatism or other causes may be inherited by the descendants.

The State's interest in its mental defectives is set forth in the Roman law providing for the appointment of a curator for the prodigal who wasted his patrimony and for certain cases of young people lacking intelligence or, as we would say, feeble-minded.

The summary measures adopted by the Greeks and Romans of disposing of their weaklings, together with an unchecked infant mortality, effectually prevented any large survival of the unfit who might have caused much anxiety to the community.

With the birth of Christianity, society's attitude towards its weaklings and dependents changed to one of compassionate recognition of the sacredness of human life.

In medieval times the monasteries sheltered those afflicted in mind and body, the priests administering to their spiritual and physical needs, since which time society has gradually increased her care and protection for her afflicted members.

The success of Seguire, following the lead of Itord, Voisin and Esquirol, in his pioneer work of educating the idiot, had much to do with the almost simultaneous awakening in France, Spain, Switzerland, Germany, England and the United States to the fact that society had a duty towards its mental defectives.

I can think of no greater possible burden in a home than the mental defective who is the innocent but helpless cause of many

hours of agonizing grief for the parents, who must, through many long weary days, months and years, silently bear their burden of sorrow while caring for the helpless loved one, all the while realizing the influence of his presence on the brothers and sisters.

These intolerable home conditions are often responsible for driving sons and daughters from the home, fathers to drink and mothers into nervous breakdown, insanity or to an untimely grave. It is our duty to devise ways and means to relieve these families of their unbearable burdens.

The homes of mental defectives are characterized by unsanitary living conditions, high infant mortality, neglected children, poverty and low moral standards.

In cases such as I have just pointed out it is not an infrequent thing to find one or both parents defective to such an extent that they oppose every effort to relieve them and the community of the burdensome care of a defective child.

Who can estimate the money and industrial waste resulting from the ceaseless anxiety and sorrow in such extravagant home care of defectives that it often leads to pauperizing an entire family.

No unfortunate has a stronger claim upon us than the defective girl, who in body and instincts is a woman with the mind of a child, by reason of which she naturally falls a prey to the designing and unscrupulous.

It has been said that careful segregation of every defective woman for twenty years will result in a reduction of at least fifty per cent. of our defectives.

As a simple business proposition, the State can make no better investment than to provide against reproduction by these defective women of child-bearing age, who are responsible for so much of the unspeakable debauchery and licentiousness that pollutes the lives of the youth of the community.

Our failure to put the mental defective under proper care at an age before he commits acts which bring him before the courts is responsible for a large number of preventable crimes.

The participation of mental defectives in all phases of indus-

trial life is responsible for a number of industrial and traffic accidents involving preventable economic loss.

The continued excessive use of alcohol exerts a direct influence on the germ plasm causing impairment of the nervous system of the offspring. In the case of alcoholic pregnant women there is a direct environmental degenerate effect on the embryo.

The influence of toxic-constitutional taints, such as syphilis, exerts a far more extensive influence in the production of mental defectives than can be shown from statistics. We need to study carefully the effects of alcohol and venereal diseases on the germ plasm.

That there is no really accurate census of the various classes of defectives makes it impossible to approximate with any degree of accuracy their ratio to the whole population. Estimating the number of defectives in our institutions at ten per cent. with the remaining ninety per cent. at large practically unrestrained, it is not difficult to understand why the reports of our various institutions indicate that we are not gaining in our battle against these defectives and that the anti-social classes show no reduction in their numbers or their offenses against society.

The inefficiency of our present methods of dealing with these defectives is doubtless due to our failure to fully recognize the causes responsible for them.

Among the preventable causes which we can correct are those that result from poverty, hard overwork, poor and inadequate food, anxiety, physical suffering, immorality, intemperance and the indiscriminate marriage and cohabitation of mental and physical defectives.

Too much attention cannot be paid to the education of our boys and girls to fit them for parenthood. I have no patience with the unreasoning sentiment or ignorance which permits them to learn through sad and bitter experience things which they should have been taught at their mother's or father's knee.

The principles of heredity should be taught in schools and colleges, so that our young people who will be the parents of the next generation may be informed on the subject which is of most vital importance to themselves and their descendants. The

danger of marriage with persons of tainted stock should be forcibly and plainly presented.

Every young woman about to marry should be advised of the great importance to herself of choosing for the father of her children a man of good morals and heredity.

The young man should be taught that the mentality, health and efficiency of his own children and of their children will be determined largely by his physical condition and the quality of his and his future wife's family germ plasm. Too much stress cannot be placed on the importance of leading a moral life.

Special efforts must be put forth to prevent reproduction in neurotic strains before we will greatly reduce our anti-social classes. Early recognition and protection for the borderline cases, who by reasons of their unrecognized defect become easy prey to unscrupulous and designing persons, is essential for their and our protection.

Certain normal members of tainted families may transmit defect to their children, especially when they mate with someone carrying a similar taint in his or her germ plasm. When this hereditary tendency is marked, members of these families should not marry. It is better that the family become extinct.

No one should be graduated from our medical colleges until he has a general knowledge of the varieties and causes of mental deficiency.

The physician, with his intimate and personal knowledge of family histories and tendencies, has an excellent opportunity to point out the fact that each mental defective is a potential source of an endless progeny of defectives. On the other hand, it is his privilege and duty to allay the fears occasioned by misinterpretation of the principles of hereditary transmission of defect.

Medical inspection for our school children should be extended to include the rural districts. Dental examination should be made of the teeth of all school children and clinics established to which they could be referred for necessary treatment.

Physicians, health officers, dentists, hospitals and nurses' associations should co-operate in the organization of county units, which, under direction and patronage of the county medical

societies, will be the nucleus for clinics at convenient points throughout the county, especially in the rural districts, where the people in general do not have the facilities for care and treatment afforded in our city hospitals. The nurses connected with these centers can be used for follow-up work in connection with the school and general health work of the community.

Some of the thousands of dollars now spent in trying to educate "mental defectives" in our special classes spent in the establishment and maintenance of these centers will return a high rate of interest.

The establishment of special clinics in connection with general hospitals and State institutions with psychiatric hospitals conveniently located will afford opportunity for early examination of many persons who, with timely advice, may be saved from mental breakdown.

Statutory authority for detention as long as may be necessary for the protection of society of all mental defectives admitted to our institutions is essential to the successful working of any plan.

The mental defectives now in our penal institutions should be transferred to permanent custodial care, instead of discharged to beget others like themselves and to repeat their offenses against society again and again. The removal of the defectives from these institutions will make it possible to handle normal offenders under discipline that may lead to reform.

The expense of establishing colonies and increasing the facilities for handling these defective cases in our existing institutions will be counterbalanced by a proportionate reduction in the number of inmates and the expense of operating our penal institutions.

A rational protection and control of mental defectives can only be accomplished by the co-operation of all existing agencies, in early detection and registration, improvement of the home and working conditions, intelligent supervision and after-care of discharged hospital cases and proper classification in our schools and institutions.

A bureau of research should be established under State control, centrally located and free from political influences, under

the direction of an experienced psychiatrist, with a staff of experts especially trained to make the necessary examinations to determine the physical and mental condition of each person referred to the bureau.

As soon after the completion of the examination of an individual as possible the results of the examination, together with such recommendations as the examiner may choose to make, should be forwarded to the director for use in making his report and recommendations for the proper treatment or disposition of the case.

In addition to the professional staff referred to above, there should be a corps of field workers and statisticians, whose duty it should be to gather, record and tabulate all possible facts relating to the causes of mental deficiency.

Existing statutes should be amended and new laws enacted making it possible to admit or commit any case of doubtful mentality to the bureau for examination and advice with the minimum amount of formality.

The bureau should, on application from the proper authorities, make necessary examinations of inmates of our various institutions for the purpose of reclassification.

The courts should refer all cases of doubtful mentality to the bureau for examination, and report before allowing the case to go to trial. In all cases requiring medical expert testimony, the court should have the advice and assistance of the bureau. In this phase of its work the bureau will render an inestimable service to the courts and medical profession in removing the necessity for the employment by the defense and prosecution of medical experts as practiced under the system now in vogue.

In addition to the above, the bureau of research should endeavor to draw to itself all agencies actively engaged in charitable and philanthropic work by advising and co-operating with them in every possible manner. On the other hand, the various agencies should give to the bureau such support as will come from their encouraging parents, guardians and school authorities to refer to the bureau all cases of mental defect coming to their notice.

In the discussion of this problem I have endeavored to place before you thoughts as they have occurred to me, with the hope that they may be the means of stimulating discussion and action which will lay the foundation for a practical working scheme, which, to briefly summarize, will include :

Education of the public, especially of the rising generation, who must be shown their responsibility to society in this matter.

The reclassification of the inmates of our penal institutions so as to separate the defectives from the normal criminals.

The establishment of special clinics in rural districts and in our general hospitals, with intelligent supervision and after-care for their discharged cases.

Clinics held at regular fixed times at the various State institution, caring for mental defectives, for the examination and advice of such cases as may be presented.

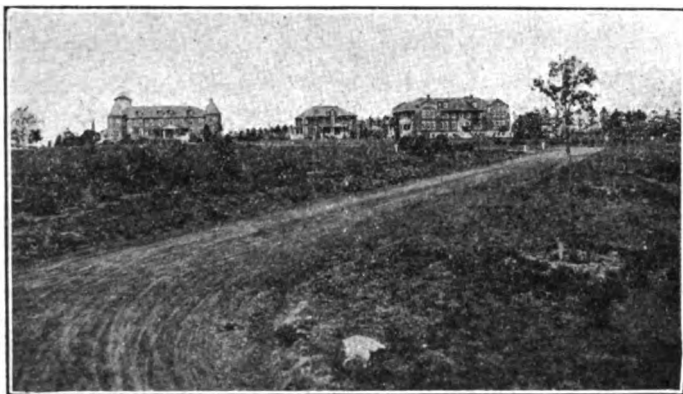
Such modification of governing statutes as may be necessary to permit the voluntary admission to the institutions of patients pending examination, the cost of their maintenance to be borne by the county from which they came, when the relatives or friends are unable to meet the expenses.

The establishment of psychiatric hospitals, preferably in or near our large cities.

The establishment of a bureau of research such as is outlined above as a center around which to develop the scheme.

While I realize the impossibility of putting into effect at once or even in a short time a plan such as outlined, yet with the start already made in our State I have the courage to believe that the time is not far distant when this or some similar plan will be in full operation.

In conclusion, I desire to thank the various committees for the careful and painstaking manner in which they have discharged their respective duties and to express the conviction that much good will result from their labors.



Women's Group, New Jersey Epileptic Village, Skillman, N. J.

The N. J. Epileptic Village at Skillman, N. J.

The first official action toward the special care and treatment of the epileptic in New Jersey was taken in February, 1877, when Dr. John Ward, Superintendent, and Mr. Charles Hewitt, member of the Board of Managers of the New Jersey State Hospital at Trenton, appeared before a Joint Committee of the Legislature and asked for an appropriation for a separate building in which to care for epileptics. In 1884, Dr. Ward again went before the Appropriations Committee and urged the necessity for providing separate care for this class of cases. After considerable agitation, the New Jersey State Village for Epileptics was opened on November 1st, 1898, with Dr. Henry M. Weeks as Superintendent. The first cases were admitted to Maplewood Cottage, which was used as an administration building, residence for Superintendent, necessary employees and seven patients.

The village now consists of 1,005 acres, of which 520 are under cultivation. It is located in Montgomery Township, Somerset County, at Skillman Station, on the line of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad. The 653 patients (on July 15th), of whom 373 are males and 280 females, are cared for in 16 cottages with capacity ranging from 14 to 100, and a custodial building accommodating 160. In addition there is a hospital, a school and an industrial building where patients receive instruction in printing, weaving, sewing, etc. There are 191 patients on the school roll.

The patients assist in raising potatoes, corn, rye, barley, wheat and fruit. Milk is supplied from 126 cows, pork from 115 hogs, and eggs from the 600 chickens. Outdoor labor is prescribed for all inmates able to do something. Many of them can do little more than pick up stones, but it is essential that as much time as possible be spent in the open air. A physical culture teacher instructs patients in outdoor sports. Baseball and basketball teams have added much to their enjoyment. The recreation building is much in demand in bad weather.

At this village the State provides a home where the epileptic may earn a part of his maintenance and be protected, as far as possible, from accidents incident to his disease; a place where he may have hospital care, daily medical advice, dental treatment, education, amusement, recreation and religious service, thus relieving the family, friends and society of the dread and danger of his presence. It attempts to gather statistics and get the heredity of all the epileptics in the State. On July 1st, 2,494 cases were recorded.

THE CHAIRMAN—Our next speaker, Dr. Samuel McComb, formerly of Emmanuel Church, Boston, now of the Episcopal Cathedral, Baltimore, has, we all know, done wonderful work on the subject about which he is to speak, and in his early work was associated with Doctor Worcester, of Boston. I take pleasure in presenting to the Conference, Doctor Samuel McComb.

Alcoholism as a Psychic Disorder.

REV. DR. SAMUEL MC COMB, BALTIMORE.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I consider it a very great privilege to be invited to come here and address you on one of the vital and pressing problems of the day. I not only congratulate myself but I would congratulate you that you have so much interest in these questions as to resist the allurements of such a beautiful afternoon and go off for your own amusement and recreation.

Now, I am to speak to you on "Alcoholism as a Psychic Disorder." Alcohol is not a modern discovery. We have dug up ancient papyri from the Greeks and Egyptians long dead, and we have discovered on those papyri words that imply that alcohol was not only very well known thousands of years ago in Greece and Egypt, but was too well known. Not only so, but we have examined the tablets that have survived the wreck of ancient Babylonian temples, and you can all read for yourselves the records of the Old Testament and can find that ancient men, long before the art of writing was known, knew the art of how to get drunk.

Then, of course, as civilization has progressed, the complexity of human life has made a greater stress and strain upon the nervous organism. The result is that to-day alcoholism is a more pressing problem, a more complicated, a more difficult question than at any time in the previous history of mankind. So great is now the desire for stimulants that a recent distinguished writer has laid down the rule that the desire for alcohol is inborn, a native instinct like fear or love or hate, and that all men naturally and normally are prone to drink just as they are

to fall in love. That is a theory, of course, that we do not accept. On the contrary, we believe this, that the history of alcoholism has been a history of deterioration, physical, mental and moral. One of the great questions which psychological chemistry is discussing at the present time is, "Is alcohol a food or a poison?" One psychologist claims that when taken in moderation it is a food, because it generates heat and it creates quality in a physical organism, and those are characteristics of food. And another psychologist maintains that no matter in what degree you take it it is a poison and acts always as a poison acts. We need not decide between those two schools, because I believe that both are correct. I believe that if you say that alcohol is a food, then you must hasten to add, "Yes, but it is a poisonous food." It is a food that poisons because we now know that except in the smallest quantities, so small that it is hardly worth while considering it, and so small that it does not come within the practical necessities and purposes of social life—that apart from those small doses of alcohol, alcohol has a serious effect upon mind and upon body. Teachers are unanimous in condemning the use of alcohol, and that does not mean that a man may not take a glass of wine occasionally with his food and suffer any serious damage. What it means is this, that in the vast majority of cases alcohol is a danger, one of the greatest dangers to modern civilization. As an illustration of a bare exception to that rule, I would like to tell you of a friend of mine who is now almost ninety years of age and threatens to live to be a hundred. When I spoke to him on this question of alcohol he said to me, "I am not going to give up my little drink; I have a glass of good Scotch whiskey every day in my life for the last forty years." I was very much astonished to hear that and then I said to him, "Would you mind telling me a little of your history?" And, briefly, it was this: that he was born of a family no member of which knew how to die early in life, every one of them, without exception, was long lived; and in the second place, he was born in the north of Scotland and lived the early part of his life more or less out in the open air, and bringing his muscles—building up for himself a strong physical con-

stitution. He had no tendency, inherited or otherwise, toward drink, and when you take all those factors into consideration you can see that it may be that in certain exceptional cases a moderate use of alcohol may not be a serious injury. The worst of it is that everybody thinks he is an exception.

Now, this question about alcohol being a food is, after all, a very academic one, because everybody I ever knew does not propose to drink alcohol to build up his system, but he takes it almost or nearly always on account of certain emotional effects which the alcohol has upon his mind. There is, for example, the modern business man, who feels himself submerged beneath a mass of details, and he takes a couple of glasses of wine in order to sustain his strength throughout the day, or the poor woman who struggles with domestic duties, or the overstrained professional man who has to keep his position against competition and feels that he cannot do it without a stimulant, and so on. A vast number of these persons give way to drink because they feel that drink is a source of strength, of help and of comfort. This is a form of drinking, the most lamentable of the modern world, which goes by the technical name of "misery drinking." Thousands of persons drink, not because they want to drink, not because they want to be drunkards, not because they want to commit sin or fall into vice, but in order to get away from the world of sad and sorrowful reality to an unreal world, where for a moment they can realize their ideals, a thing all of us—as the late William James has well said—"There is a bit of mystic consciousness which is kept down, suppressed by the hard realities of daily life, and we want to get into another world in order that this mysticism may have free play," and the key that unlocks the gate of that other world is alcohol.

And now what is alcoholism? We hear people saying, "Oh, poor fellow, he has been drinking now for years and years and it is impossible to do anything with him, it has become with him a disease," and there is a certain amount of truth in that popular saying. Only we have got to remember this, that when we speak of a disease we are always thinking of something like pneumonia or tuberculosis or some disease of the physical organism. That

is not the kind of disease that alcoholism is. We would not therefore be correct if we call it a disease, and still we are correct if we said this: It is not a disorder of the body, it is a disorder of the mind. It is a nervous-mental disturbance, which is accompanied with certain physiological effects. It is therefore quite true that alcohol creates physical diseases like, for example, cirrhosis of the liver, but it is not itself fundamentally a physical disease. What, then, is it? It is simply this: It is a reaction of a man to his own inner life or to his external surroundings, his environment. For example, here is a soldier who is, let us suppose—and unfortunately there are such soldiers—a coward. He knows if only he can get a drink of alcohol he ceases to be a coward and becomes a hero. How is that? Is that proof, therefore, that alcohol is a good thing for the mind and for the moral powers of the mind? It only proves that he has given way to weakness, that in the taking of that alcohol he has taken something which has undermined his judgment, so that not recognizing the real consequences of the danger into which he is passing he goes into it without the slightest fear, simply because he blinds himself to that which he is actually about to do. Or, again, take the man involved in some business trouble, whatever it may be, perhaps a bill of thousands of dollars is coming due at a certain date, and he does not see how he is going to meet it. Well, there comes to him the impulse—"You can get away from the whole problem," and taking to drink, consequently he thinks he isn't afraid of that bill at all, fear passes away from him and he cares nothing. Does that prove anything but this, that he has wilfully refused to exercise his common sense; he has sought an unreal condition for his mind and he is blinded to everything but the consequences of his condition.

Now, when we look on the problem of alcoholism from its second standpoint, we discover this, that one of the underlying supplements of alcohol is a weakening and an eventual overthrow of the will. I want especially to call your attention to that fact. The will is, according to many investigators, the very first power to be attacked, and then they have asked, "Why is this?" Because

the will is the last quality of man acquired in the process of evolution and the first to go. The drunkard first of all loses his higher moral and psychical qualities, the power of will, of moral inhibition. Then his mental powers are impaired, powers of intellectual knowledge, feeling and memory, all these give way, and then, lastly, his muscular energies go and the last stage of all is that he lies down lower than the brute creation: That is his history—he has gone down to the level of the brute, from which normal man has risen, to the forms of subconscious personality. The will is the essential power of the human soul, and alcoholism in attacking the will assails the very citadel of the mind. You know modern psychologists tell us that a man is not to be judged by what he knows or by what he feels, but by what he wills. The man's will is the man's character. The nation, for example, that has the strongest will is the nation that is going to rise triumphant on the ruin of the other nation that has no will. The nation that has so strengthened its national consciousness that it has only one irrevocable will, that is the nation that is going to raise the flag over other wills.

The power of will is the only power by which man can contribute anything to the world. It is a power that always gives him influence over his fellow man, it is the secret of success in life. Alcohol attacks the will, because it attacks those powers of mind on which the will rests for its foundation. I suppose the one thing about which we will all agree that distinguishes man from the lower creation is his power to conceive of and possess an ideal to which he works, for which he strives. That is the thing that makes a man a being by himself, lifts him out of the category of the animal world, and makes him a citizen of the Kingdom of God. Here is the curse of alcohol, it destroys at its very root this power of the human soul to have an end for which it strives, to which it moves, because it destroys the memory, it destroys the powers of judgment. It destroys the feelings, because it rouses the basest instincts of the soul, and it leaves us the victims of the most animal instincts in our nature.

Now, in a brief and in a very fragmentary way we have indicated what alcohol does to us, and no man is safe who gives way to indulgence in alcohol, because he does not know under what stress and strain he may be bringing to form this habit which will eventually hold him in its grasp.

I want to say something also about how this psychic disorder is met, how it is to be, if possible, overthrown. In order to treat any disorder it is essential to treat its causes and its character. Any methods of treatment which do not include psychic or moral or psychological methods must be doomed to failure. I remember once sitting on the bench with a judge before whom came a long stream of men who had been arrested for drunkenness, and as they came before him he asked one or two questions and gained the information he desired, and then he said, "Two months at the farm," "four months," as the case may be, and I asked him how long had he been doing that, and he said all his judicial life. Then I wondered was he continuing to do that until he died. In other words, the poor man could not help it, but he was the victim of a system, he was sending men to a farm that they might work in the open air and get sober, but so that they might enjoy drink immediately upon their discharge. The reason is that the physical methods, while in a certain degree are not to be neglected, are not permanent, cannot cure alcoholism. Because, as I have explained to you, it is a psychic disorder, and only psychic methods will avail. Now, during the time I was associated with my dear friend and colleague, Doctor Worcester, in Boston, I suppose hundreds of alcoholics passed through our hands. I would like to tell you what the result of our observations has been, what the conclusions are to which we have been driven in dealing with this difficult problem. In the first place, we do not exclude physiological measures. We believe that for a man who has been for years under the power of alcohol certain measures are necessary, such as rest in bed for some time, also some tonics, which any medical man can administer. First to eliminate the alcohol out of the system, then to build up the physical strength of the patient. What I want to emphasize is this, that all so-called

cures, all these things we find advertised in the newspaper, or any other methods that confines its attention to the mere physical side of the problem, cannot succeed, and where it does succeed you will find it was due to the power of suggestion or perhaps the personality of the physician in attendance.

Now, what are the methods that I believe will be found useful in the grappling with this disorder? I want to say very frankly and simply, I do not believe that this is purely a medical problem at all, no more than I believe that tuberculosis is a medical problem; and yet without medical science neither one nor the other will be solved. What we need to see is this: that as tuberculosis is an educational problem, a religious problem, a moral and psychological problem, and a problem for just such a conference as this, so the same is true of alcoholism. I believe if we are ever to grapple with this evil we can only do it with the co-operation and combination of forces that up to the present time have stood apart—the doctor, the clergyman, and especially if he is engaged in training the human soul, and the trained social worker. I believe that a combination of these three great forces gives the best chance of dealing with this terrible curse. We begin, first of all, with what is called explanation and encouragement. That is to say, we sit down quietly and we tell the man exactly what alcohol is, which perhaps he has not known. We tell him what it is bound to lead to, we show him how it is formed, we take him back to the causes that created the desire in his case for alcohol, and then we show him that hundreds of others worse than he have gotten rid of this wretched habit, and that he too can do the same, and we stir him to fresh hope. That is the first stage. May I say this, that if there is anything the drunkard needs more than anyone it is human sympathy, and surely we can all give that. That is the very thing the drunkard does not get, as a rule. We don't like him and turn away from him in disgust. Until the drunkard gets a sense of hope, until he gets the sense that men and women are interested in him and want to save him, there is very small chance of his restoration to health of mind or soul.

Now, the second method which we use is the mental thera-

peutic, called "suggestion." Whatever form the suggestion takes, the main point of the suggestion is this: that the man is told to remain silent, to close his eyes, occupy himself in any way that he wills, and then the man who is trying to help him pours into his mind suggestions that waken within him better thoughts, better desires and better emotions. Let me explain that a little further. You know in all of us there are what are called systems of thought, that is, great central ideas that have the power to gather to themselves myriads of similar ideas, so that eventually a regular system of ideas are built up within the mind. These systems are formed in childhood, and they go on growing as the years pass by. For example, the boy brought up in a religious home has within his mind a system of religious ideas. He may go far from home when he grows up, he may wander far from the right paths, but there is a system of ideas within him that if only you can touch it that system will come out and show itself, and perhaps with a revival of enthusiasm will cast off all the evil of a lifetime.

Now, the value of suggestion is this: that this appeal to these subconscious systems of thought stimulates the man's better self, so that his worst self may be overthrown and its power destroyed. That is the essence of suggestion.

Perhaps some would like to know how that worked. If you gaze steadily into the fire for a few moments in that condition you fall into a state of abstraction which is a suggestible state. Suggestions offered to you while you are in that condition will take effect. If the case is very bad the idea of alcohol is associated with something that is repellant and nauseating. It is not in itself a cure for alcoholism but it is an element in the cure, because it destroys the desire, it sets the mind free, and as I have said, preserves his will power and his better self.

The third great means whereby I believe alcoholism can be overthrown is some kind of an inspiration in the man's life. If you can get and arouse in him some ambition or some emotion stronger than the desire to drink, then you can save the man. I hope you won't think that simply because I happen to be a clergyman I want to emphasize things supposed to be identified with my own profession. The one invariable cure that never

fails for alcoholism is religious inspiration or conversion, that is to say, speaking from my experience, where the man had passed through a great religious crisis, I have never known such a process to fail in overturning not only alcoholism but every other evil habit in the man's constitution. Now, of course, if you ask me why that is so I cannot give you a full and satisfactory answer; I can only suggest one or two things, and here I admit in the first place I am going outside of the exact bounds and science in a theoretical sense. Nevertheless, I am going to say something which I think experience does bear out and it is this—that in a great ethical or religious upheaval of a man's life he is brought into contact with spiritual forces greater than any he has hitherto experienced. It is true that something happens and when this moral change comes to a man whereby evil habits are wiped away the whole personality is lifted to new life of power and efficiency.

And the next thing is this: the reason why religious conversion is the most potent cure of alcoholism is because other methods leave the man in the same environment, but religious conversion at a blow changes his environment. A man who has come through a great religious change forsakes his old pals, if possible, gets a change of work, forsakes the saloon and all those things that have contributed to his downfall in the past; not only so, but if he is truly converted he puts himself under those influences that strengthen his spiritual emotions. He puts himself under good educational, religious and moral forces, and thereby the new desire is born and grows up within him.

Lastly, I want to say this, that apart from the trained social worker, I do not think this problem can be solved. Very often alcoholism is not the only cause of evil, it is itself a symptom.

Dear friends, we are to remember that these people deserve our sympathy. Very often it is poverty and the evils that poverty creates that makes a man a drunkard. Tell me what is the use of trying to cure the symptoms when we are not dealing with the roots of the vital trouble? It is therefore a psychological problem, but it is also a social problem, because very often the environment of the drunkard is to encourage his vice. Send the trained worker into his home. Is there need of money,

the trained worker is to see that the poor fellow gets a helping hand. If his employment is not congenial, then new work has got to be obtained, and so on, with all the other adjustments.

So you see it is by a combination of all these methods working harmoniously together that this great misery is at last to be grappled with. Let me in closing tell you simply one story taken from my own experience, and I tell it not because it is extraordinary but because it happens to be recent in my mind.

Not very long ago there came to me a man occupying a high social position, one of the merchants in the city where he lived, and also at the head of a very important business, and he had been a drunkard or victim of alcohol for fifteen years or more, and during that period not only had he brought shame upon himself but he had also brought humiliation and misery unspeakable upon twenty other families with whom he was directly or indirectly related. We applied most of these methods that I have described to you in that case. To-day that man is restored to his family, to society, to business, and a nervous trouble from which he had been suffering for ten years has also disappeared.

It is quite possible if only we have faith, a belief in the fundamental instincts of the human soul, there is no evil of which we need be afraid. I want every member of this Conference that is beginning its sessions in this town to-day to start out upon your deliberations with an optimistic attitude toward life, with a firm belief that for every evil with which we are afflicted the Almighty God has put at our disposal some remedy, and all we need is patience and perseverance and resolution in order to find that remedy and to apply it with heart and hope.

Selection by the Orchestra.

Benediction.

BY REV. CAROLUS R. WEBB, EAST ORANGE, N. J.

The Peace of God which passeth all understanding keep your hearts and minds in the knowledge of God, and of His Son, Jesus Christ, and the blessing of God Almighty and the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghost be amongst you and remain with you alway. Amen.

Modern Methods of Treating the Deficient.

Sunday Evening, April 30th, 1916, 8 P. M.

Wards of Society. (Two Reels.)

After selections by the High School Orchestra and stereopticon lecture showing the different types of the mentally deficient, motion-picture films on "Wards of Society" were shown.

This film shows the reasons underlying much of modern crime and gives the life history of three boys born of degenerate fathers, one of whom is a drunkard, and the other a drug fiend. Because of this faulty parentage the boys are defective mentally, but not so much so as to be very evident. Owing to their environment they take to petty crimes and are brought before the Children's Court. They are then sent to physicians and psychologists to be examined by the Binet and other tests. Social workers visit their homes, and on the strength of the reports are sent to Randall's Island to the School for Defective Children. Interesting views of the various activities of Randall's Island are given showing the intelligent supervision to which the boys are subjected.

A year later the parents of Frank and John exercise their rights to take their children home, which they do contrary to the advice of the physician in charge. Tom is forced to remain, since his father has died, due to an overdose of morphine. Frank, owing to his weak mentality, is easily influenced and falls prey to certain criminals. He is instigated to robbery and murder by these persons, and pays the penalty for his crime by being sentenced to the electric chair. His brother John commits arson and has the good fortune to be defended by a lawyer who has studied sociology and knows that the young man is irresponsible. He traced his life history, produces the early record of the Children's Court reports, together with one from the Clearing House for Mental Defectives. On the strength of these reports John is committed to Randall's Island, this time permanently. In the meantime, Tom has grown to manhood on the island and, un-

able to do himself or society an injury, passes a peaceful and happy existence.

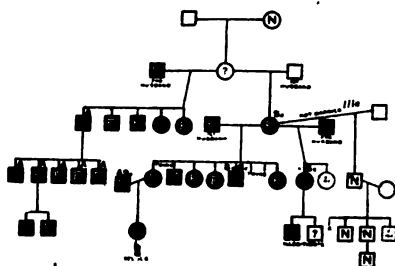
The answer is apparent to every one who sees the film that the best way is to prevent crimes that society may not suffer from it at the hands of mental defectives; that punishment after the crime, as in the case of Frank, is locking the barn door after the horse is stolen; that in the case of John the permanent commitment to Randall's Island came only after great damage had been done; that in the case of Tom the right and only method of handling such individuals was followed.

The following illustrations of the mentally deficient have been provided by Prof. E. R. Johnstone:



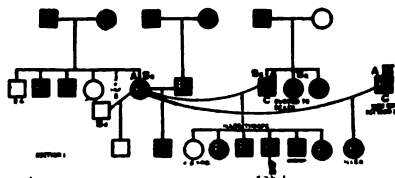
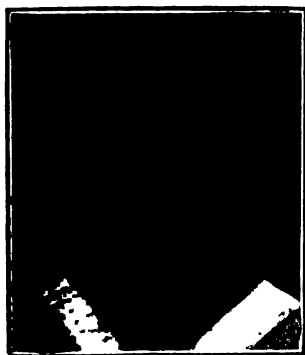
Low Grade Type.

large family of defectives and degenerates. The seriousness of Nellie's defect is also due in part to the epilepsy and a severe fall when very young.

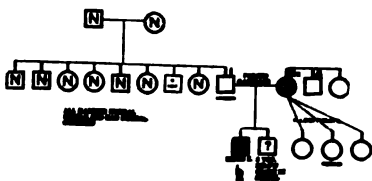


NELLIE E., 24 years old. Mentality, 2. Had epileptic convulsions at 3 months and whooping cough at 4 years. Has almost no intelligence; does not know candy from wood; is bad tempered and quarrelsome although sometimes affectionate. Cries a great deal. Is inclined to fight, pinch and scratch the other children.

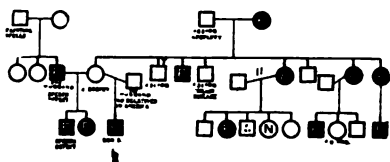
The family chart shows that this girl comes from a



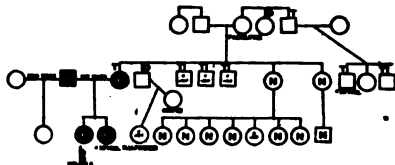
HORACE C., 14 years old. Mentality, 7. A glance at the chart shows a family history with a large amount of sexual immorality, alcoholism and criminalistic tendencies. The child was neglected and abused by worthless parents. One cannot help asking the question, "Why has society allowed the parents of this child to live a life of debauchery entirely unrestricted?" Horace is now able to run errands, polish metal, do housework and go to school. He is cheerful, active, good natured, but rather destructive, obstinate and stubborn.



KEITH E., 16 years old. Mentality, 8. Mother's intemperance and the father's nervousness given as a cause. Child had measles at the age of 5 years. A glance at the chart shows that the mother was feeble-minded and immoral and the mother of several illegitimate children. The father was insane but seems to have belonged to a normal family. The real cause is probably bad protoplasm. Keith is a handsome boy with no marks of defect on his body; he is quite active and pleasant spoken. He is just the type of boy to tempt any teacher to believe that with a little special training he could be made normal, yet he does not improve by training as a normal boy would. He cannot do much reading, writing or counting, which might be attributed to his love of mischief, his disobedience or some other characteristic. He talks distinctly and can speak a piece of four lines, which takes him a long time to learn, and which is soon forgotten unless it is funny. This boy would be a dangerous person outside of an institution, he would be the victim of his own environment, and he has just enough mentality to choose the bad environment.



DON S., 18 years old. Mentality, 9. Had convulsions at the age of 3 and measles at the age of 8. Assigned cause, "Struck with a baseball bat when 6 years old." Mother at least was defective, was married the second time and had two defective children. Second husband was feeble-minded. Don is a typical case of the good-natured, dull boy found in the public schools whom the teacher is so loath to give up as defective. He can read fairly well, write a fair story, can make some combinations, has a little talent for drawing and makes fair pictures. He does well in wood work, and under direction would make a fairly good carpenter. He is cheerful, active and obedient, willing and faithful, very affectionate, and generally liked by all with whom he works. A number of Don's cousins are making trouble for the public school teachers and are backward in their studies.



NELLIE C., 19 years old. Mentality, 9. Father and mother both defective; in the mother's family, however, there are some normal sisters who have had normal families. There is some deafness and considerable tuberculosis on this side of the family. In industrial work, Nellie has steadily improved; she is neat, careful, and can do well almost any kind of work. She is willing, cheerful and truthful, sensitive and good-tempered, although at times quick-tempered.

This girl is a striking illustration of the type of woman who, out in the world, becomes quickly victimized because of her quiet, innocent and unresisting manner. Pretty and attractive, she holds the attention of the passerby, is easily captured by the designing more intelligence.

High Grade.

rascal, and may even attract one of

Monday Morning, May 1st, 1916, 9:30 A. M.

At this time President Weeks asked for suggestions for the next Conference, and appointed various committees.

Mental Deficiency and the Sick.

FRANK H. EDSALL, M.D., D.P.H., JERSEY CITY, CHAIRMAN.

Ladies and gentlemen, the program for this morning has been somewhat delayed and there is entertainment ahead and added interest in visiting the institutions at Secaucus, so while we hope there will be full and free discussion of the papers that are to be presented this morning, that discussion should be as prompt and concise as possible in order that luncheon may be secured before going to Secaucus and you do not have to be hurried in order to reach there.

You will find much of interest in the three papers on the program this morning on "Mental Deficiencies," and I trust the discussion will be full enough to lighten any dark spots which may appear in them, and give us further information on this subject which we have undertaken to consider. I need not remind you, ladies and gentlemen, of the importance of the subject. I also need not tell you that the connection or relationship between mental deficiency and the sick is a subject to which comparatively little attention has been paid thus far. In preparing this program the objection I met with on the part of those persons asked to address the Conference was the lack of available literature on the subject, and the lack of scientific studies on the connection between mental deficiencies and sickness seemed to cause considerable doubt as to what could be gotten out of the program. In spite of this, however, the subject is one deserving of careful study. Doubtless some of you have seen a little dark-colored stream trickling from a dyeing establishment into a large river. The stream as it comes from the factory is small, but as it reaches the river into which it

flows you will see the dye-discolored water from it extends far and wide on the surface of the great river, so that it can be traced for a considerable distance. A similar thing occurs in the extension of mental defectives. It will be found that, with a comparatively fair stock to begin with, one or two defectives injected into such mentally healthy stock and propagating will color the mentality of that family far into the future until the entire family history becomes tainted by this unfortunate mingling of the mentally sound with the mentally defective. It may not alone affect the family, but sooner or later its effect may be seen on the social fabric itself, nay more it is conceivable that it might so extend as to deteriorate the race through this bar sinister beginning in one family. Is it not of importance, then, for society to study this subject and take measure to protect itself against the extension of such impairing of the vigor of the nation?

We heard much, a few years back, of the importance of "Conservation," conservation then meaning the conserving of the physical resources of the nation, and yet it would seem that of far more importance than conserving of timber or of minerals or water powers is the conserving of the mental and physical vigor of the racial stock, and to do this it is imperatively necessary to take heed to the effect which the feeble-minded may have on it. Latterly we have heard less about "Conservation" but much about "Preparedness," meaning military preparedness. How futile a thing would such preparedness be, however, in a nation whose people had deteriorated through the extension of mental deficiency. If we hope to be prepared throughout the future to protect our shores from invasion we must first of all be prepared to protect future generations from the commingling of tainted stock. Mental deficiency may be an acquired, that is, a pathologic condition; or, as is more often the case, it may be congenital. The pathologist may be able to demonstrate a lesion at autopsy or there may be nothing to show the reason for the mental defect, but be that as it may the separation of the fit from the unfit is urgent, and prevention of the increase of tainted stock is no less urgent. The State across the river from us, New York,

has been much in the limelight during the past year by reason of a very interesting experiment that has been carried on among the convicts at Sing Sing. There is some question as to whether the experiment is a success or a failure. In some of its aspects it would seem to be a decided advance along reformatory lines, while in others it seems to me to have been based upon sufficiently false premises to have obscured the benefits it was capable of bringing about in those who were fit subjects for it, because it was applied alike to the fit and to the unfit; in other words, too little discrimination has been used in applying it. There seems to have been no careful studies made of the mentality of those undergoing the experiment. The general idea seems to have been to ameliorate the condition of all the prisoners without due consideration as to whether they were all likely to be capable of permanent betterment by more humane treatment. It would seem to me to be true that criminals may be roughly divided into two types, the accidental criminal and the one who becomes a criminal because he is, first of all, a mental defective. The first of these types should be capable of complete reformation through intelligent and humane penologic treatment, but the reformation of the criminal who is such because he is, first, a defective would seem to be a difficult proposition. Following release from prison such an individual, however much he may seem to desire to live at peace with society, will, in most instances, relapse if his circumstances become sufficiently trying or the temptation to go wrong sufficiently great. He has not the will power to buoy him up in swimming against the tide when it is running too strong against him. To avoid error and secure best results in an experiment of this kind each individual should be studied separately by a competent psychiatrist to determine his mental calibre before subjecting him to a test of this character. A strong will gone wrong is capable of being again set right, but a weak will needs constant supervision. Following this line of thought, realizing that moral fatigue is quickly reached by mental defectives, that the effort of doing things that may be unpleasant simply because they have to be done cannot be long sustained by them, it may readily be understood that per-

sons of this class are unsuited for attendants on, or for close association with, the sick, and that infant mortality is likely to be higher among babies born to defective mothers than to others. Whether this is a situation to be wholly deplored I leave for others to decide. Certainly, however, with the dark future which accompanies the infant of a mentally defective mother, it is not impossible that a high death rate among such children is an effort of nature to eliminate the unfit. The domain of mental deficiencies is not an inviting field for study to most persons, and especially so because the prospect of doing more to benefit people of this class than to somewhat lessen their deficiency is so slight; but, viewed from another standpoint, that of doing all that can be done to remove the menace to the race which inheres in mental deficiency, the subject is one that deserves consideration of the most careful kind. Much opposition has been experienced from quarters from which it should least be expected to doing anything along the line of safeguarding the defective against reproducing his kind other than to segregate them in institutions. It is manifestly impossible, however, to institutionalize more than a part of those of this class who should be under restraint, so that the opposition to other measures designed to protect the community is growing less. In a few States, notably in Wisconsin and in Indiana, sterilization of defectives is being resorted to, and it involves very slight risk to the individual, either male or female, upon whom the operation is done. It should go far, if more generally adopted and made mandatory, to remove this bar sinister from the race when sufficient time has elapsed to make its results noticeable. The mentally defective woman is open at all times to the possibility of being led astray and the probable resulting pregnancy unless this be guarded against by some such means as is being used in the States mentioned.

I will not detain you longer this morning. The papers which are to follow will have much more of interest than anything I could say. I now take pleasure in introducing Dr. Christopher C. Beling, of Newark, who will speak to you on "Psychopathic Hospitals and Clinics."

Psychopathic Hospitals and Clinics.

BY DR. CHRISTOPHER C. BELING, NEWARK, N. J.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: The main topic for consideration this morning is "Mental Deficiency and the Sick." In addressing you on the subject of Psychopathic Hospitals and Clinics, I shall take the liberty of broadening its presentation somewhat to include the consideration of some of the problems of mental disorders generally. The term "mental deficiency," literally speaking, is just as applicable to "a decay as to a non-development of the mental powers," to a senile degeneration as to an inherent development defect. The problem of mental deficiency gains a much wider interest and importance when it is viewed in its relation to other disorders of the mind.

All forms of mental defect and disorder are interrelated with abnormal physical and environmental factors and their separation from the standpoint of causation is extremely difficult. When the subject of feeble-mindedness and other forms of dependency is being brought so forcibly before this congress, it would not be out of place to take up for a brief consideration the relation of psychopathic hospitals and clinics to the varied problems of dependency and their influence in the promotion of eugenics, economy and efficiency.

Psychopathic hospitals and clinics have had their origin largely as the result of the modern trend of psychiatry towards the scientific study of the causes and treatment of mental disorders in their incipency, and as the result of the need of temporary care of those mentally afflicted in their journey to institutions for more or less permanent care. While institutions for the insane and feeble-minded have been in existence for quite a long period, the evolution of psychopathic hospitals and clinics is only of recent date.

The aims and objects of the two classes of institutions are not entirely similar. The former are largely of a custodial character, and are devoted to the study of outspoken cases of mental disease

or defect as the case may be. The latter have for their aim the problems connected with these conditions in their incipency, in their pre-custodial stages, with the care and treatment of the borderland conditions before the development of a psychosis, and with the spread of the mental hygiene idea.

The trend of modern medicine is toward prophylaxis. Psychiatry has reached out so far beyond the pale of metaphysics and speculation that it has grown to be a more and more important branch of the science of medicine. It is a most important and promising field in which preventive measures must surely yield very fruitful results. To be mentally well poised and informed is the best asset for combating the evils of the environment.

The tremendous import of the subject of crime and dependency can only be realized when it is considered from the standpoints of eugenics, economy and efficiency. We are constantly demanding more and more accommodations for delinquents and defectives, for criminals and paupers. Our hospitals and institutions are burdened and overcrowded, and the cry is for still more.

In view of these facts the psychopathic hospital and clinic idea should absorb our attention much more than it is doing at present. There should be in the State of New Jersey, in every county, and in every large city, in connection with the large municipal hospitals, psychopathic units for the care and treatment of mental diseases in their incipency. According to a list prepared by the National Committee on Mental Hygiene in March, 1915, there are in the whole country only six psychopathic hospitals and seven psychopathic wards connected with general hospitals. In every large city there should be a psychopathic department in connection with its municipal hospital, where mental disorders, particularly in their early stages, may be treated under favorable conditions, such as are afforded general medical and surgical cases. Such a department, under the care of specially trained men, must necessarily become a valuable adjunct to the general hospital service, while the co-operation it will receive from the surgical, medical, pathological and other departments cannot but serve as an impetus to the psychiatrist.

Along the lines suggested by Dr. L. Pierce Clark in 1903, cities with a population of 20,000 or less should have psychopathic wards attached to general hospitals. Cities of 50,000 should have pavilions adjacent to general hospitals, with independent observation and equipment, permanent resident nurses and one or more resident physicians. Cities of over 100,000 should have their own independent psychopathic hospitals.

The problem of mental defects and disorders cannot be attacked and solved satisfactorily by disjointed efforts on the part of would-be psychologists and social workers. In each of these hospitals there should be a well-trained psychiatrist in charge, with a corps of efficient workers trained in psychiatry and general medicine, psychology and social service work.

As a center in each county, entirely separated from the governing influence of any custodial institution, and in co-operation with the scientific work of the present county and State institutions, the "psychopathic unit" must necessarily develop into a very important part of the economic fabric of the county. To this center would be referred borderline and other cases from the courts, social service agencies and families.

The psychopathic hospital should be an institution entirely different from the already established State and county institutions. The tendency is to consider the psychopathic hospital or psychopathic wards of a general hospital as a "reception unit" for the custody of patients who should be transferred as soon as possible to a State or county institution for the insane. The modern psychopathic hospital should be an institution where both "voluntary" and "temporary care" groups of patients may be treated. Such a hospital should deal with the problems connected with the insane, the psycho-neurotics, the feeble-minded, the epileptic and with certain alcoholic and delinquent cases.

As the problems of mental disease are closely related to physical disorders, environmental factors, habit formation, early training, delinquency and crime, the co-operation of general hospital physicians, general practitioners of medicine, social workers, probation officers, school authorities and the courts should be

secured. Environmental and educational problems arising from failure or lack of adaptation to the social fabric can be best studied with the assistance of parents, educators and social workers.

The object of the hospital should be to give "first care, examination and observation to all classes of mental patients," excepting the class of patients which can and should be committed under the regular law. Psychopathic units should be divided into: 1. State psychopathic hospitals. 2. County psychopathic hospitals. 3. Psychopathic wards or detached pavilions in connection with general hospitals.

Each of these units have their own special advantages. It may be wise to predict that in New Jersey the development of the mental hygiene and prophylaxis idea will grow up from the smaller units in connection with general hospitals, will extend to the formation of county units and find its culmination in the State Psychopathic Hospital.

Psychopathic hospitals and clinics should be centers of health work for a circumscribed community, and concerned with the study of the problems of that community. As Dr. William A. White has well stated: "The problem of mental disease is a far-reaching one. It has not received the attention it demands. It is a problem of the greatest importance from an economical standpoint. No class of people in the community probably cost more in dollars and cents to care for than the mentally diseased and defective. As it is at present, mental disease goes practically unrecognized, not only as far as our public hospitals are concerned, but so far as a large number of practitioners of medicine are concerned, and no effort is made to help the incipient cases previous to a frank outcrop of symptoms, which makes their incarceration necessary. In fact these people have no place to go, except in rare instances, where they may get intelligent advice, and so the problem is not recognized until the period is passed when treatment might avail."

In 1908, as the result of certain problems connected with the care, treatment and transportation of the indigent insane of the

city of Newark, the board of health established a psychopathic service in the municipal hospital under its care—the first of its kind in the State. The work was a new departure and the facilities were limited. Male patients were received into the alcoholic ward containing fourteen beds, and female patients in a small ward containing eight beds. Up to the present time about 4,000 patients, including alcoholics, have passed through these wards. Of this number less than one-third have been certified as legally insane and committed to the State and county hospitals.

During its eight years of work under the most unfavorable conditions the Psychopathic Department of the Newark City Hospital has passed the experimental stage of its existence. An extensive review of its work cannot be set forth in a brief address such as this. It may, however, be said that it has demonstrated without any doubt the urgent need which exists in the community for the early and humane care and treatment of those who are suffering from various disorders of the organ of behavior.

All classes of psychopathic cases have been cared for in these small wards—acute alcoholics and drug habitues, unruly and noisy patients from the other departments of the hospital who could not be controlled in the general wards or were disturbing to other patients; patients suffering from post-operative mental disorder, fever and toxic delirium; cases of attempted suicide brought from the city by the police or transferred from other institutions; cases of outspoken psychoses referred by the police, physicians, families, friends or those interested; offenders from the juvenile court and unruly and defective children from the probation office, for observation and diagnosis; epileptics and feeble-minded pending their transfer to Skillman or to Vineland; psycho-neurotics and psychasthenics from the various charitable and other organizations—cases of temporary mental disorder from the House of the Good Shepherd, the Florence Crittenton Home and other such institutions. Every year a large number of psychopathic cases have been refused admission for want of room, constant overcrowding and lack of facilities for proper care and treatment.

In the new wing of the Newark City Hospital, which is now practically completed, the entire ground floor has been planned for a male psychopathic ward, with accommodations for twenty-five patients. Provision has been made for a modern equipment for hydiatric and electrical treatment, for three separate rooms for the isolation of disturbed patients—a dining-room, a diet kitchen and an examination-room. No provision has been made for females and none for the separate treatment of alcoholics. Although ill-adapted, this ward will afford some relief until a much-needed separate Psychopathic Hospital is built.

It does not need a very strong imagination to realize what this will mean to the community. The different types of individuals that have passed and are still continuing to pass these psychopathic portals are the "mentally deficient and the sick." From one or another group, it matters not particularly which, the evergrowing number of defectives, dependents and delinquents are being constantly recruited.

The problem is before us. What are we going to do about it?

There is need for an intensive campaign of public education in our State regarding mental prophylaxis. The far-reaching communal advantages which will accrue from the standpoints of eugenics, economy and efficiency should alone warrant all the expenditure of money for the spread of education in mental prophylaxis, which such a campaign will require, not to speak of the great and important value psychopathic hospitals and clinics will have in the communities in which they exist, in dispelling prevalent misconceptions and prejudices concerning mental disorders, and in studying the "exogenous and environmental factors so important in the prevention of mental disease."

THE CHAIRMAN—Ladies and gentlemen, one outstanding fact from Dr. Beling's paper is that all too often we are still not very far away from the old idea of the insane asylum in contradistinction to the hospital for the care and treatment of the mentally sick and defective. It is not so many years since treatment in these institutions was a secondary consideration, the idea was to get the mentally sick and the mentally defective into an institution where they would not trouble the community. Dr.

Beling's paper shows the advantages to be gained from medical and scientific handling of cases of this kind early in the game. The paper should have full discussion. I shall ask Dr. Hasking, who also is doing much good work along the same lines as Dr. Beling, to open the discussion.

ARTHUR P. HASKING, M.D. (Jersey City, N. J.)—Dr. Beling has covered fully the real things that a psychopathic hospital can do. I can merely go into detail on a few points. The need of psychopathic service in large hospitals, and particularly large cities, has been very much underestimated. In no institution such as a city hospital can one realize the amount of work there is of a psychopathic nature, and it has only been recently recognized. Many people have the idea that an institution of that kind has no equipment to handle cases. Then there is the individual fear of having anything to do with an insane person and a desire to get him out of local institution as fast as possible. This accounts for the large number of persons committed to institutions who do not stay there very long. If they had been taken care of properly in these hospitals there would not have been the necessity for sending them to the institutions with the usual stigma that goes with it. People haven't yet been educated up to the idea that there are hospitals for mental diseases. We used to call them asylums. In reality they should be viewed at their face value and called hospitals for mental disease. They prove that insanity is not a crime, but nothing more than a disease, just the same as any other disease which the body is heir to.

A study of this has been made in the Jersey City Hospital, where I have charge. We have run it about a year and a half. The vast amount of cases that have passed through that service carries out what Dr. Beling has said. We have practically little or no equipment to work with, but the results obtained have been surprising. Dr. Beling started his work in Newark with a small room, small amount of people, with very poor equipment, considerable amount of opposition, and so forth. The work he has done in Newark has simply convinced everybody that the regular psychopathic service in a large city is a necessity and our work

in Jersey City still further confirms it to us. In Hudson County we have had trouble in getting the patients together and deciding what was best for their welfare. This can only be done by a local psychopathic hospital. For Hudson County the only solution is a county psychopathic hospital.

Again, there are a large number of cases that can be taken care of and cured in an institution of this kind. In the general hospital it is not considered abnormal for a case of typhoid fever or fracture of the thigh to stay in the institution from eight to ten weeks. In many hospitals there are cases that stay two months and are not considered there too long. If we can take a case of mild mental disease, take care of him in our psychopathic hospital and cure him in six months, isn't it better than to send him to an institution? In view of the fact that institutions for the insane are improving, are fast being put on a modern basis, people are now sending their relatives there who in the past hesitated. They have lost that terror that used to go with the insane asylum. Therefore, one not familiar with the situation might think that lunacy was on the increase. That, I think, is not so. I think in our own community we ought to be particularly proud. Recent studies show that the lunacy of Hudson County is below the average of the State and the State of New Jersey is far below the average of the State of New York, and I don't think we ought to worry.

The one point about psychopathic hospitals which I want to impress upon you is that we should get the patients early, and for this reason the psychopathic hospital should be right in the heart of the city. All these mild cases would come to this special hospital, where they would be recognized and where the facilities for treatment would be better than in the general hospital. If the patients require institutional care, they can be sent away.

My idea is after a patient has been discharged from an institution and comes back to his community he should from time to time report. If the psychopathic hospital is in the town he could go to it from time to time, follow up and be followed up and see that his general training is kept up, which will have lasting results.

If the community is not large enough for a separate hospital, then by all means have a special service in the general hospital. Where it is a large county, such as Essex or Hudson, I think a county psychopathic service is the proper thing, but all general hospitals could co-operate, particularly in the after care. We have quit thinking that chronic tuberculosis can be cured. The same thing must apply to lunacy. If we are to cure mental disease it must be recognized early, treated in its own special way and treated properly. Until the general public realizes the importance of the early psychopathic care right in the community, at home, we shall still lag behind in our efficiency.

THE CHAIRMAN—The subject is now open for discussion. Five minutes will be allowed anyone who has anything to add to what has already been said on the subject.

MR. ZEDD H. COPP—What relation does lunacy bear to this psychopathic work, and is it not on the increase?

THE CHAIRMAN—Is there any other question, or can anyone contribute to this discussion?

DR. STEARNS (Jersey City)—The question of adequate accommodations, as discussed by Dr. Beling, and of early treatment as referred to by Dr. Hasking, are most interesting and important. The chief difficulties in our way in New Jersey were referred to by the President of the Conference last year, as to be found in our antiquated Constitution which was formulated in 1844—and the solution of the problem is to be found in the establishment of commission government.

I am inclined to criticize, not unkindly, the nomenclature in common use—to prefer pathology, and pathological expressions to psychological ones. Also to say that we have been too long attributing to heredity, alcoholism and syphilis, all the things we do not understand. The classification of the congenitally insane of forty years ago was Idiots, Imbeciles and Cretins—and while Cretinism is certainly transmitted to offspring, it is known to be due to climatic and geographical incidents, primarily, and its connection with the thyroid insufficiency places it out of the hereditary class.

Dr. Weeks proposed yesterday the creation of a commission which goes far toward the solution of our problems, and the greatest single step that has been taken in the solution of the problems of feeble-mindedness thus far is in the establishment of "Baby Week." The idea of supervision of the individual from the cradle to the grave is not new—but we are not receiving the benefit of the vast store of knowledge which has accumulated, and for the conservation of human life, as well as for the elimination of the peculiarly difficult problems of feeble-mindedness. It will be necessary for the State to intervene by the control of the practice of medicine as the only means either for the solution of the problems relating to the subject or for securing adequate treatment at the critical moment for the individual.

DR. DICKINSON—For every lunatic you have had in the asylum you have forty dozen walking the streets. I did not hear all of Dr. Beling's paper; whether that referred to the matter or not, I don't know. I would like to emphasize it. If you are going to have asylums to put people in for some punishment, build over the river. If you are going to have psychopathic wards, that means detention or something of that kind. There is a cause for most cases of this kind. If you have a good clinic, a place where men like Dr. Beling and other young men can have a chance to go and study early cases, and get the history of their lives, know the family and their environment, study the things acquired during their life time—get them mapped out—be told what they should eat and drink and what they should work at, and so forth, you will have the possibility of closing up your asylums in a large measure. In tuberculosis we are tired of treating the man who is going to die, so we have our city nurses and doctors go into the homes, and are thereby able to control tuberculosis. It looks to me that the psychopathic clinics could do the same for the mentally deficient.

DOCTOR KING—I just want to say that Dr. Dickinson has struck the keynote of this situation completely. The causes of insanity are well known. We all know that a great many

tuberculosis cases are cured permanently. The great trouble in asylums is after they go away they don't take care of the disease. There are five causes of insanity. The first cause for insanity is syphilis. Twenty-five per cent. of the male population and nine per cent. of the female population of persons in insane institutions in this country are suffering from general syphilis. It leads to mental and physical decay and death, which has been proved.

If the psychopathic ward and clinics as advocated by Dr. Dickinson is carried out, I think that is the only way to meet this situation.

THE CHAIRMAN—If there is no further discussion, the hour is growing late, I will call on Dr. Beling to close the discussion.

DOCTOR BELING—The object of this paper was really to start a discussion of this subject, bring it before your mind so that you will think about it. We are not going to get results and to establish this line of work if the people don't take it up. We have been trying for eight years in Newark to get a psychopathic hospital, and it has been very slow work, but I am sure if all the people of Newark take it up and asked for that hospital, the legislators will give it to us. So let me bring the problem home to you. Right here in this assembly are a number of people who will succumb to some form of disease at some time or another. I don't wish any of us to get sick, but we are going to develop tuberculosis, one or two of us, and other diseases. We may have sorrow and trouble, and it may make us nervous and put us on the community. We have no place to go to. The thing to do is to have some place in a community where one can go and learn how to solve this important problem. It always seems rather ridiculous to me to speak of sterilizing the dependents and putting them into institutions. We have got to go to the very source and stop the pollution at the source, and that is in ourselves and in our environment. Let us learn how to live, how to take care of ourselves, to be sound mentally and physically and avoid those poisons that cause mental and physical decay, and then we would not have to pay so much for taking care of these dependents.

Think of the amount of money it costs every year in the State of New Jersey to take care of simply the mental defectives and feeble minded. Dr. Hasking says lunacy in Hudson County is below the average. I feel inclined to question that, but I am glad that Hudson County is looking at it in the way that we are looking at it.

Someone asked whether lunacy is on the increase. I do not think so, although statistics may point that way. The reason for this is that some of the mentally deranged are now sent to the psychopathic ward and others are sent for safe-keeping because there is no other place, and it is better to put them in the psychopathic ward and treat them while waiting than to lock them up in the police station.

We are now going to have a ward with twenty-five beds, which is only a beginning. This must spread through the State. Every community must have its hospital unit where people can go. If I can stimulate this conference to take some action to get the Legislature to pass a law for a State psychopathic hospital, if we can get the larger cities to establish their psychopathic units where we may have centers for public education in mental disease, where it may serve as a valuable aid to the public school for public school children and every problem connected with mental hygiene, I shall feel that I have been more than repaid.

THE CHAIRMAN—The next paper, "Infant Mortality as Affected by Mental Deficiency in the Mother," has been prepared by Dr. O'Gorman, but I have just been notified that Dr. O'Gorman is unavoidably detained and will not be here this morning, but his paper will be read by the Secretary, Mr. Easton.

Mental Defect on the Mother as it Affects Infant Mortality.

M. W. O'GORMAN, M.D., JERSEY CITY.

Mental defect implies congenital defect, a defect occurring in every life. This defect renders the individual incapable of normal intellectual development. It unbridles the animal passions and lets them pursue their object unhampered by the guiding power

of a well-balanced will. Hence arises the obvious connection between mental defect and delinquency.

The prevalence of mental deficiency among females cannot accurately be stated. It is said that the number of evidently feeble-minded, above six years, is one to every 500 of the population. The relative proportion of male to female is difficult to estimate with any degree of certainty. Mothers often keep their defective daughters at home because of the dangers they might encounter outside and because they are useful in assisting in household duties. The high-grade feeble-minded woman of child-bearing age, the so-called morons, generally pass unnoticed until some overt act of moral delinquency brings their condition to light.

There is ample proof that the mentally defective woman is often the victim of white slavers, laborers, employers, and, at times, of fellow inmates and attendants in asylums.

That the appalling rate of death among infants receives accessions from the many illegitimate children of feeble-minded mothers is beyond dispute. Unprotected motherhood offers little chance for the helpless infant at the very threshold of existence to attain the perfection of health of which it is capable.

These children pass into institutions, the mortality figures of which are not the lowest or are harbored in private homes where child welfare is subordinated to commercial gain.

The great and important factors in infant mortality are ignorance and the many secondary disabilities born of poverty. The feeble-minded woman is invincibly ignorant and almost always destitute. The material basis of thought is impaired and cannot be expected to respond satisfactorily to treatment. Therefore we abandon all hope of applying to these unfortunates the established methods of infant welfare stations, the recognized combatants of infant mortality. For the offspring, however, who come within the influence of these agencies, much may be expected by maintaining them in health, fortifying their resistance to disease and improving their environment. Dr. Walter E. Fernald, Superintendent of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded, states that from 60 to 80 per cent. of the cases

of feeble-mindedness are of direct inheritance. Other authorities confirm this view.

The accidents of birth that produce feeble-mindedness can be reduced to a minimum by the recognized principles of prenatal care. The actual mental defectives must be segregated. Separate the high grade from the low grade and train them to be useful to society and to themselves. Prevention is the topic of the hour and it is through prevention that the best results will be obtained. Cut off at its source the cycle of deficiency, dependency and delinquency. Radical measures are in order to prevent the feeble-minded from reproducing their kind.

Thus far I have confined by considerations to the strict sense of the term "mental deficiency." I have been intentionally brief. Of the eighteen hundred mothers registered at the Jersey City Baby Saving Station, only three mothers, evidently feeble-minded, have come to my attention.

Mental deficiency is judged solely by actions and words. Performance is paramount. Now, I desire to call attention to the sad fact that the contributions of infant cadavers to mother earth by apparently normal mothers far outranks in relative importance and frequency the numbers credited to their feeble-minded sisters.

The millions of physically defective children in this country is without doubt an index of mental deficiency in mothers regarded as perfectly normal, a defect for which society must stand convicted. This crowning shame of the age, infant mortality, is universal. Thousands of infant welfare workers give testimony to the fact. Your school medical inspectors give further proof. This is the real mental deficiency that has been the menace to the integrity of society and which has been making most inroads on its vitality. The mind devoid of the essentials of infant care and feeding has been permitted for ages to lay fallow.

The temples of education continued to turn out their finished products—examined and passed as fit to cope with the every day problems of life. Vocational training does not include the teaching of the mother her trade. "By their fruits shall ye

know them." One-third of all deaths occur among infants under one year, a sad commentary upon our boasted civilization.

Grandparents, doting relatives, neighborhood advisors—all of limited experience strive to supply gratis what our educational systems fail to impart. Too often the little white coffin gives their efforts a recess.

This is the mental deficiency, in the broader sense, that has spread desolation throughout the world. It is the mental deficiency that calls into enthusiastic action the trained field worker who is striving to lead out of the morass of ignorance the thousands of mothers abandoned to their fate by the educational systems that fail in the essential and most vital needs.

The instilling of a few simple principles would have raised infant life to a plane of security. Within recent years society, for its own sake, is endeavoring to make amends for past neglect. Too long has she failed to recognize the right of the child to be well born, and the duty she owed both mother and the child. Her efforts, educational in character, have found expression in the hundreds of baby welfare stations or consultation places established for the enlightenment of mothers.

The prospective fathers and mothers must receive now what the experience of the past indicates is their educational need. Otherwise be prepared for a continuation of mental deficiency in the form that is most menacing to social soundness.

The long-neglected field of prenatal care is being cultivated. Already, where fertilized by public and private efforts, a harvest of healthy vigorous infancy has sprung up, attesting that an awakened, intelligent motherhood is the salvation of society.

THE CHAIRMAN—This paper is an important one, and I hope you will be interested enough to bring out further points in the discussion which will be opened by Dr. Julius Levy, of Newark.

DR. LEVY—It is a little difficult to discuss a paper in the absence of the writer.

The first point is, that there isn't a distinct moral lack of judgment shown. I think in a scientific discussion it is very important for us to make it clear that after we allow for that we can

come back to a certain amount of nervous debility that may be due to mental deficiency, not on account of the peculiarity of mental deficiency, but merely because society has not properly adjusted itself to the mentally deficient. It is true that the mental deficient is often the unprotected mother. That is the fault of society, not to be charged against mental deficiency. In Newark I think we are eliminating, as rapidly as possible, unprotected mothers. If we find a person who may be mentally defective—and I say mentally because she may have an illegitimate child—we protect the mother by seeing she is properly taken care of in a family or in an institution. I think that is the proper plan.

There is one practical point in speaking of the prevention of the mental deficient that occurs as the result of injury at birth. I think a great deal can be done in that direction, and has been, to a degree, overlooked. We are now recognizing more than in the past that convulsions and difficulty in nursing in the first stages of life are often the result of accidents. Proper care will eliminate a number of these cases.

I should like to say a word about the course that the baby of the unprotected mother is apt to take. It comes to an institution and there it often dies. That again is no fault of the baby or the mother, but the system. The baby should never be separated from the mother, but both should be placed in an institution together. I think nature has solved our infant mortality very nicely, if we only believe that each mother should have the care of her child.

THE CHAIRMAN—This topic is now open for discussion. The subject is an interesting one. A baby, I believe, has an inalienable right to be well born and well reared, and no baby can be well born or reared at the hands of a defective mother.

A DELEGATE—I want to say something in reply to Dr. Levy's statements that the child of the mentally defective can be saved if the mentally defective mothers are given an opportunity to nurse their babies. I want to say that in three cases, several years ago, I knew in Newark of a mentally defective mother

who gave birth to a child. They put her baby in one of the institutions. The child died at the end of two months. The next year she gave birth to a second child, and was taken into a good hospital where she was given an opportunity to nurse the baby, but the second child died as the first one, because the mother was mentally deficient, and she couldn't be taught how to take care of it. We have had this past year two mentally deficient mothers who were given an opportunity to take care of their babies in their homes, with sufficient food, and one baby died through the mother's neglect, although she had been instructed how to take care of it, and the second baby had to be taken from the mother to save its life, after she had been given every opportunity to take care of it in the home.

THE CHAIRMAN—Inasmuch as the writer is not here to close the discussion, we shall go on with the next paper. I am very sure you are very desirous of hearing Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf, who will take for his subject, "Is there Any Relation Between Tuberculosis, Mental Disease and Mental Deficiency."

Is There Any Relation Between Tuberculosis, Mental Diseases and Mental Deficiency? A Plea for Justice to the Sane, and Compassion and Pity for the Insane Consumptive.

BY S. ADOLPHUS KNOPF, M.D.,

PROFESSOR OF MEDICINE, DEPARTMENT OF PHTHISIO THERAPY, AT THE NEW YORK POST-GRADUATE MEDICAL SCHOOL AND HOSPITAL; SENIOR ATTENDING PHYSICIAN TO RIVERSIDE HOSPITAL-SANATORIUM FOR CONSUMPTIVES OF THE NEW YORK HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

Some months ago, when I received the honoring invitation to address this important Conference of Charities and Correction on the subject of "The Etiology of Tuberculosis as Affected by Mental Disease and Mental Deficiency," my first thought was to decline, for I felt that this was something of which I knew too little to speak authoritatively. But the very fact that the subject

had been broached made me feel that there might be a justification at least for its discussion. The fact that I know very little about it, because the tuberculous individuals I deal with are very rarely mentally deficient, did not at all prove that there might not exist after all a very close relation between tuberculosis, mental disease, and mental deficiency. I therefore decided to send about a hundred letters of inquiry to superintendents of insane asylums and institutions for the mentally defective, and to specialists on diseases of the mind and nervous system, asking them to let me have the benefit of their experience. But first of all I asked the Secretary of the Conference please to change the title from the positive, reading "The Etiology of Tuberculosis as Affected by Mental Disease and Mental Deficiency," to a less pretentious heading and in the form of a question, namely, "Is There Any Relation Between Tuberculosis, Mental Disease, and Mental Deficiency?"

Here are the four questions I propounded to my distinguished confreres:

1. In your vast experience as a physician of the insane or mentally deficient have you found that tuberculosis has ever been the cause of the pathological state of the patient?
2. If tuberculosis has been present prior to the patient's becoming mentally diseased, has the tuberculous trouble been aggravated because of the mental status of the patient?
3. Have you any suggestion to make as to the prevention of tuberculosis in the mentally deficient or as to its treatment in the mentally diseased?
4. Have you any statistics on this topic you might be willing to place at my disposal?

Nearly every one of my letters was answered, but the replies vary so much that I cannot very well classify them in a table. When this paper will be published in full, I hope I will be able to reproduce some of those nevertheless very interesting replies.

The question, "Have you found that tuberculosis has ever been the cause of the present mental pathological state of the

patent?" has been answered with a decided "Yes" by ten; by words implying it to be of rare occurrence, by 13; with "not alone," by 2; with the words "not more than other ordinary debilitating diseases," by 2; with "only when meninges are involved," by 2; two gave percentages, namely, 7.6 per cent. and 5 per cent.; and 21 answered with a decided "No."

The question whether the tuberculous trouble has been aggravated because of the mental status of the patient has been answered by 14 with "Yes"; 10 with "No"; 2 with "Not in feeble-minded"; 3 with "Mental trouble exaggerated"; and 21 saying "Only when prophylactic and therapeutic measures could not be carried out because of the mental status of the patient."

My request for suggestion as to prevention and treatment of tuberculosis in the mentally deficient or mentally diseased has been complied with by nearly all my correspondents, saying it should be along the same lines which have been followed in the ideal institutions for this class of unfortunates, namely, isolation of the infectious cases, proper diet and open-air treatment for all cases.

I was furnished with some very interesting detailed information about what the various institutions are doing along preventive and prophylactic lines, but the time allotted for reading this paper will not permit me even to mention a few of these reports.

The replies to my question on statistics were in the majority to the effect that exact statistics were not available. From those received from superintendents of insane asylums I would say that an average of 10 per cent. of deaths are due to tuberculosis. Opinions on the frequency of tuberculosis among the mentally defective are remarkably at variance. As an illustration, I will give figures from Dr. Martin W. Barr's admirable paper on "The Relation Between Tuberculosis and Mental Defect" concerning the morbidity in the three States nearest us. Your own State, New Jersey, gives 15.9 per cent. of deaths from tuberculosis among the feeble-minded; New York institutions for the mentally deficient ascribe 35 per cent. of deaths to the

same cause; in Pennsylvania the Western Institution, at Polk, reports 28.5 per cent. due to tuberculosis, while at the Eastern Institution, at Elwyn, there are at present 1,085 children, of these 50, or 4.6 per cent., are tuberculous. In Dr. Barr's personal study of 755 deaths he found 22.2 per cent. due to tuberculosis among the feeble-minded.

From what has been said thus far it is very evident that the opinions of eminent authorities differ on the question whether or not tuberculosis may be considered an etiological factor of insanity or mental deficiency, since twenty-one answered "No," ten "Yes," the rest of them qualified their statements. A less marked divergency of opinion exists considering the question whether the tuberculous trouble was aggravated by the mental afflictions; the opinions being nearly equally divided. The majority, however, agree that there is no aggravation of the tuberculous affliction when proper prophylactic and therapeutic measures are carried out. An almost unanimous opinion, of course, exists that tuberculosis, particularly of the pulmonary type, exists far more frequently among the insane or mentally deficient than among our normal population. The causes of this are, of course, numerous and well-known. They are, on the one hand, apathy, indifference, depression, lack of exercise, no desire for deep breathing, tendency to keep the head covered at night; and, on the other hand, the very manner of housing the vast majority of our insane and mentally defective population concomitant with bad ventilation, lack of light and outdoor exercise.

My paper in itself up to this moment has very little value as a personal contribution, for I don't think I have presented to you any facts with which most students of this problem are not familiar. I presume I was honored to open the discussion on this subject because it was hoped that with my somewhat lengthy and wide experience with tuberculous patients I might be able to suggest some prophylactic and therapeutic measures to reduce, if possible, the rather alarming morbidity and mortality from tuberculosis among this unfortunate class of sufferers. Whether I shall succeed in doing this or not I do not know, at any rate, I will offer my mite. •

In a recent address which I delivered before the American Public Health Association, at its last annual meeting in Rochester, N. Y., on the subject of "The Period of Life at Which Infection from Tuberculosis Occurs Most Frequently,"* as a result of inquiries, study of literature, and my own experience, I arrived at the conclusion that tuberculosis is perhaps never directly inherited from the father. On the other hand, tuberculosis from the mother is much more frequently transmitted directly than was heretofore believed. That postnatal infection in early childhood is very frequent, and when both parents had been tuberculous the offspring probably never escapes infection, was also corroborated by the statistics at my disposal.

From the results of my recent inquiries before writing this present paper, it seems to be evident that the histories of mentally defectives show that in a surprisingly large number of cases the child was the offspring of tuberculous parents at a time when both father and mother had been acutely ill. Perhaps this can be explained by the fact that the brain and nervous system during its formative process in utero is particularly susceptible to the toxins created in the maternal system, while, on the other hand, when the formation process is completed, that is to say, in postnatal life, there seem to be no organs so strongly resistant to the tuberculous invasion as the brain and nervous system.

What is the lesson this teaches us? To my mind only one thing, namely, that it is the sacred duty of every physician to teach tuberculous parents not to procreate while actively afflicted with the disease. When the tuberculous father or the tuberculous mother is at the same time feeble-minded, so as to be likely to disobey this injunction, what should be done? Until the wisdom, practicability and legality of sterilization has become established, segregation will be the only prophylactic measure left to us.

When there is evident mental deficiency in either one or both of the tuberculous parents, even if the children have not yet shown the hereditary taints, the danger of postnatal infection is very great, and when to this is added bad housing and malnutri-

* Medical Record, January 8, 1916.

tion is it any wonder that the two diseases appear in the children concomitantly? Dr. Bernard Sachs, of New York, whose authority on all such questions cannot be doubted, wrote me concerning this in the following pertinent words: "I should consider that the poor housing condition and the miserable environment of many of those who develop tuberculosis might have something to do with the development of mental deficiency in the children of such people."

What I have so often said in previous writings and lectures in this respect I am willing to repeat here, namely, that not until bad housing and malnutrition of the masses disappear and more sanitary homes, better methods of feeding, happier environments, in fact, better and more humane social conditions are established, will we do away with tuberculosis as the most costly of all diseases, demanding the greatest toll of death and physical and economic suffering.

What way can I suggest to separate the tuberculous insane and the tuberculous mentally defective from those not yet afflicted with tuberculosis except the careful physical examination and periodical re-examination of all the inmates of all such institutions? These examinations should be aided by the most approved adjuvants, including bacteriological and X-ray examinations by men carefully trained in the early discovery of the disease due to the tubercle bacillus. Our clinics for tuberculosis and our mental clinics should be multiplied so as to be sure that both children and adults afflicted with either disease may be diagnosed and taken care of in the early and curable stages and then assigned to proper institutions. It is useless to try to treat a mentally deficient tuberculous individual at home or in a mentally deficient family and unsanitary environments. Whether for the prevention of mental deficiency it might not be well to have an intermediate station between the mental clinic, which is the clearing house, and the institution for defectives, which is the curing house or hospital, is an open question. Such a preventorium would have a function in diseases of the mind analogous to that of our tuberculosis preventoria in the prevention of tuberculous diseases. While I personally believe the experi-

ment worth while, I feel that the expediency of the establishment of mental preventoria must be left to the experts in this line of work.

You may have already noticed that I refer mainly to pulmonary tuberculosis, this being the type most frequently found in the mentally deficient and insane, the one most dangerous to their fellow inmates, most difficult to diagnose, and also most difficult to treat. You will have also noticed that I have omitted tuberculin as a means of aiding in the diagnosis. May I frankly state my personal opinion on this delicate subject? namely, that I thoroughly disapprove of the classic tuberculin test hypodermically administered. I consider the reaction even in the mentally normal individual as an undesirable phenomenon and not without danger. In the insane and mentally defective I would fear to aggravate the already dangerous pathological condition of brain and nerve centers by adding an exciting agent of whose nature and action we know so little. I have no objection to the innocent von Pirquet test which, however, as is well known, does not give us any clue, even when positive, whether tuberculosis in the adult is active, or latent, or where it is located.

Having separated the tuberculous from the non-tuberculous, we must again separate those who are in the infectious stage with an open pulmonary or laryngeal tuberculosis from those who are in the incipient and noninfectious stages. There is no need of my recapitulating here what is so well known to all workers in tuberculosis and among the insane and mentally defective, namely, that outdoor life, best ventilated sleeping quarters, or even outdoor sleeping when feasible, are the specific means, if you will pardon the expression, for the treatment of both. The types of buildings which have been used for generations for the treatment of the insane and mentally defective should make room for the one-story, well-lighted and well-aired cottage system. Occupations should be mainly agricultural, varied, and, if indoors, in ideally ventilated workshops. Neither all tuberculous nor all mentally diseased persons are fit to do farm work. They are usually happier, more contented, and more productive if they can be employed in occupations similar to those they were en-

gaged in prior to their contracting tuberculosis or brain or nervous troubles; providing, of course, the workshops are so constructed as to assure fresh air and sunlight in abundance.

The symptomatic, that is to say, the medicinal treatment of the normal or abnormal tuberculous must, of course, be the same. In short, the ideal sanatorium treatment, consisting of judicious dietetic, open air, aero, hydro, and solar therapy, under the best possible hygienic conditions and careful medical supervision, should be made feasible as far as possible in all institutions for the insane and feeble-minded afflicted with tuberculosis.

There are, of course, a group of patients whose mental status makes the routine sanatorium treatment virtually impossible, and on my occasional visits to the tuberculous insane I have felt with anguish the utter hopelessness of doing anything effective, along prophylactic and therapeutic lines and have realized with my colleagues the despair concerning these unfortunates.

What can be done for them along the prophylactic lines? They will be untidy, they will expectorate everywhere, or swallow their sputum, they will cough and the infectious spray, or droplet infection, will be a constant menace. I have thought often and long of what could be done to prevent, or at least minimize, these dangerous sources of infection. It goes without saying that this type of patients must be isolated in rooms where there are no hangings, curtains, nor rugs, where the walls are painted so that they can be washed, and the floors made of, or covered with, some impermeable material from which sputum deposits can be washed off immediately after being discovered by the nurse in charge and before it has had a chance to dry and pulverize.

I have no remedy to offer to prevent the insane tuberculous patient from swallowing his sputum. To keep his bowels in good condition by adding to his diet bran bread or bran biscuits, which will help in carrying tuberculous materials from stomach and intestines and assure early and abundant evacuation, is the only thing which I can think of as a preventive of intestinal infection. On the other hand, I believe a great deal can be done to prevent the ordinary droplet infection. The patient, by swal-

lowing his sputum, endangers only himself, but when he coughs, even without expectorating, he endangers his fellow patients and others by reason of droplet infection. Fraenkel's mouth mask, which I take pleasure in showing you here, can easily be attached to the patient's face, and by pouring on it a few drops of the following prescription, which I believe to be a good anti-cough remedy, a prophylactic as well as a therapeutic object can be obtained.

Ol Eucalypti, 3 iss
 Mentholi, 3 iv
 Spts. Chloroform, 3 i

The little piece of cheese cloth in the wire frame could be changed frequently. Even the mentally disturbed patient, constantly breathing something pleasant, will realize, in the majority of cases, that no harm is done to him, and the mask, emanating a pleasant and soothing odor, will perhaps even be quieting to his disturbed nerves.

What can be done with those patients who are so depressed as to scarcely breathe? They must be made to walk in the open air, swinging their arms, and, if possible, even be made to do breathing exercises. In the vast majority of the insane and morally defective the tendency to imitate physical motions still persists, and the results that can be obtained will depend largely upon the ingenuity of the instructor of physical exercises and his helpers. In the less mentally depressed outdoor singing and outdoor recitation may be added as good exercise for the lungs. This, I believe, is all that can be done with this difficult class of patients.

And now, in conclusion, I want to touch upon another subject, not only so that the purport of my paper may not be misunderstood, but that it may, if possible, be of benefit, not only to the tuberculous who are mentally abnormal, but also to the thousands of patients whom I consider absolutely sane and otherwise normal in spite of their tuberculous affliction. First of all, let me say that I believe there are a sufficient number of cases on record, where the mentally diseased and tuberculously afflicted

have been cured of both infirmities, to justify an ardent plea that we should henceforth combine all prophylactic and therapeutic measures with the most humane and kind treatment in the management of this class of patients. Furthermore, this shows the economic expenditures to be justified, great as they necessarily must be, to attain the best results. According to the majority of opinions of the experts I have consulted, and also my own experience, the pulmonary form of tuberculosis rarely, if ever, is responsible for the mental aberration, mental deficiency, or insanity. The toxins secreted by the tuberculous process in the lungs do not seem to upset the normal brain so as to derange its ordinary workings.

A few years ago, some European and one American author startled the medical and lay press by making the statement that the average consumptive is afflicted with mental and moral aberration. The American author particularly made the totally unwarranted assertion that "in the typical consumptive psychasthenia, the loss of self-control and the rise of brute selfishness combine to distort the clearness of his ethical perception." I replied to this statement at the time in an address delivered before the Society of Medical Jurisprudence, entitled "A Plea for Justice to the Consumptive."*

There are, unfortunately, still some men and women inside and outside of the medical profession who believe that patients afflicted with pulmonary tuberculosis are not mentally the same as other people. Had I the time I would refute this statement, not merely by my personal experience of a quarter of a century with thousands of this class of patients among the poor and the rich, the high and the lowly, the educated and the uneducated, but also by repeating to you what has been said by others concerning this subject, some of them the highest authorities in this country and abroad.

I will content myself by closing this paper not only with a plea for compassion for insane consumptives, but also with a plea for justice to the sane consumptive, quoting from a letter I

* "Tuberculosis a Preventable and Curable Disease," Moffat, Yard & Co., New York, 3d Edition.

received at that time from the late Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, the beloved physician, who over forty years ago a seemingly hopeless invalid, made his home in the wilderness of the Adirondack Mountains, who became, through his untiring work, his unselfish devotion to science and the highest ideals of human helpfulness, the founder of one of the most beautiful and flourishing sanatoria for the consumptive poor in the world, and of a prosperous village now crowded with consumptives of the wealthier classes, a teacher to the medical profession of practical phthisiotherapeutics, and a teacher of practical philanthropy to the American public and the world at large. These are his words:

"I have never noticed any greater tendency to immorality or crime among consumptives than is to be found in the average of the human race, as far as it has come under my observation. On the contrary, I have seen all the finer traits of human nature developed to the fullest extent by the burdens which chronic and fatal illness, often slow in its progress, adds to the sum total of what men and women usually have to endure in life. I have seen certainly more patience, courage, self-denial, and unselfish devotion to others in consumptives than I have noticed in the majority of healthy human beings. Indeed, the sanatorium work never could have been carried on were it not for the self-sacrificing devotion to the suffering of others shown by my associates, the nurses, and even the employees at the sanatorium, most of them having come here originally because suffering from tuberculous disease. History is full of instances which prove that tuberculosis does not interfere with the development to the highest degree of the intellectual, the moral, or the ethical sides of man's nature."

THE CHAIRMAN—I need not remind the members of the Conference that Doctor Knopf, in all matters concerning tuberculosis, speaks as one having authority. His paper is going to be a real aid to the better control of matters relating to tuberculosis and in the mental deficient. Dr. E. F. McSweeney, Superintendent of the Seaview Hospital, New Dorp, Staten Island, will open the discussion on this paper.

DOCTOR MCSWEENEY—Ladies and gentlemen, I regret very much being a little too late to miss some of Dr. Knopf's paper. It is always a pleasure to hear anything Dr. Knopf has to say.

In looking at this subject as presented in the title of the papers of the morning, it seems to me that it is a subject deserving the very widest latitude of discussion, and for the reason that many people would not talk about it at all, as we have so little exact knowledge on the matter. Unfortunately, our knowledge of the etiological factors in both tuberculosis and mental deficiency is extremely vague. To be sure, a vast deal has been written about it, but I don't think it would be unfair to say that at the present time no one school of thought has so determined as to impress its views on others. We all know that the matter is still open for discussion, on which contrary views are held by persons whose opinions are certainly to be considered with respect. If we took the consensus of opinions of the day and considered the mental defect in its rather coarse way, as probably indicating the lack in a traumalian sense; if we think of mental disease not as any fever caught, soon developed from the normal, but consider it all the way from the unit up to types of various degrees, and if we think of tuberculosis not simply an infection to which somebody is subject, man, its victim, being a peculiar biological composition, it is altogether possible, in fact, we might even say probable, that there is a close or at all events very definite relation between the two, and the same factors would determine the occurrence of mental deficiency in its broad sense, as constitute tuberculosis. I think, however, that it is more interesting to all of us to think of the matter in this present day practical aspect, and then determine which conclusion is more likely to be the final one at which we will arrive.

Evidence shows the occurrence of tuberculosis amongst mental defective and insane, and of insanity amongst the tubercular. I have a very definite impression that tuberculosis is very common among the insane. As you all know, tuberculosis constitutes about ten per cent. of the total death rate at all ages, so that the existence of tuberculosis amongst the insane at such a period gives us a little help in solving the problem. I think it is

perfectly fair to say that resistance to disease is dependent, to a certain extent, on nervous resistance. Again, the habits of the insane would give us a high percentage of tuberculosis amongst them. If we look at the question on the other side, the occurrence of insanity among the tubercular, we would come to the conclusion that there is so little of it that one is strongly inclined to think that that conclusion can be brushed aside, but at all events, is open to grave suspicion.

Dr. Knopf alluded to a paper written two or three years ago in New York. I don't think he will be offended if I mention the writer's name, Dr. Fischburg, of New York—and he has stated that practically everybody affected with tuberculosis is crazy. In fact, he says if anyone affected with tuberculosis commits a crime he is not responsible and must be treated with kindness, simply locked up and considered irresponsible. Doctor Knopf quotes his experience, which is enormous, and says, "I know of but one case which I have ever seen where a previously normal individual an insane tendency developed." In the hospital with which I am connected we have had with in the last year 4,500 cases, and one-half of one per cent. showed insanity. On the other hand several cases have been cases of insanity, and tuberculosis developed. I feel the evidence is very positive and strongly against the case of tuberculosis causing or affecting insanity, although much insanity may have led to tuberculosis. I think we certainly can be brought to one conclusion—that tuberculosis as a cause of insanity, or as showing amongst its victims any peculiar mental defect, is without foundation. On the other hand, I think it is perfectly fair to concede that, considering the time of life at which insanity usually develops, and the general conditions surrounding the insane, that tuberculosis ought to be extremely common amongst them.

DOCTOR POLLAK—The time allotted to me for discussing the admirable paper which Dr. Knopf read is limited, and does not permit me to discuss it as freely as I should like. I fully agree with Dr. McSweeney that in attacking the paper which Dr. Knopf has presented is treading on dangerous ground, and yet

in the admirable way he presented it he treated not only on theories as regarding mental deficiency and insane, but brought out theories which some of us have and have not on the subject of tuberculosis, which would take up an hour of discussion if I were to start it.

There are some of the points which Dr. Knopf alluded to, however, that I would like to bring out, and while they have nothing to do with the mentally deficient or insane, yet he has brought them out in his paper and I want to refer to them. Recently, Dr. Dickinson and the members of the local Tuberculosis Commission have brought to the attention of the people of Hudson County the enormity of infection by tuberculosis in child hood, and if we are going to eliminate tuberculosis in the adult we shall have to attack it in childhood. Something was said about sterilization and post-natal infection and heredity. We believe to-day very little tuberculosis is caused by heredity. We feel that the infection is purely post-natal.

Another subject is the swallowing of the sputum. In studying some twenty-eight, hundred and seventy-three cases who swallowed their sputum, I have failed to discover any case developing tuberculosis of the bowels, and for that reason I have come to conclusion that tuberculosis reinfection is a rare condition. We have also had an opportunity to study conditions in relation to tuberculosis among the insane. I must agree with Dr. Knopf that we did not find any more tuberculosis in the insane than we find in the normally sound.

THE CHAIRMAN—Dr. Dickinson, I am going to call upon you to come forward and make a few remarks.

DR. DICKINSON—When I read the title of Dr. Knopf's paper I wondered what he was going to talk about, and if there was anything to be said. I thought there was much ado about nothing, but after I heard him talk I felt there was one crazy man and Dr. Pollak was another in the profession, because they drew so much out of so little. You cannot down anyone of tuberculosis disciples. You give them one little topic to talk about, and they have a great deal to say.

If a child gets into bad environment, is poor, has bad air, very little exercise, and comes down with tuberculosis, it isn't a problem of tuberculosis but a problem of sunlight. These same people, with the right kind of air, an opportunity to be given proper attention and food, don't get it. It isn't a question of insanity, it is where they are. The insane person at home can be relieved of tuberculosis. The ones in asylums have to suffer because our asylums are all overcrowded.

THE CHAIRMAN—The hour is quite late, for we are to go to Secaucus. I am going to ask Dr. Knopf to close the discussion.

DOCTOR KNOPF—I am very sorry you don't all have time to express your opinions. I am not going to close this discussion without thanking you most heartily for the kind reception you gave me, as I come from across the river, and also for your willingness to listen to my long paper, although you don't all agree with me.

What Dr. McSweeney has said I can only endorse. He speaks of a large experience. He told you that he has seen hardly ever one develop insanity among the large number of sanitarium patients he has under his care. I have told you only in my final sentences the opinion of Dr. Fischburg, and could tell you more. That there is not more tuberculosis among the insane is because they are beginning to treat the tuberculosis insane different from others. The mortality before was three times as much as now.

Now, about direct post-natal transmission. I ask only occasionally, "Were there any tuberculosis in your family?" We all know only too well that when a mother is tuberculous, and she carries a child while she is actively diseased with tuberculosis, that the toxines which she creates has some influence on the growth of the child. It is natural, it must be so, and we have as a result a predisposition to the disease. We ought to impress upon our tuberculous parents, when they are actively diseased, not to propagate. It is our sacred duty. Let us prevent disease by teaching that mother that it isn't well to bear a child while she is actively tuberculous.

One more word—and don't go away with the idea that a tuberculous individual is different from any other individual. It is true that at times when he is very ill he may not be as cheerful as other times. There are any number of tuberculous individuals who are doing admirable work in this world, who are very sound mentally and morally, and to treat the tuberculous in any other way than we would like to be treated ourselves is unkind, unjust and inhuman, and I do hope you won't do it.

Monday, May 1st, 1916, 3:30 O'clock.

Juvenile Delinquency.

CHAIRMAN, JUDGE HARRY V. OSBORNE, NEWARK.

THE CHAIRMAN—The session this afternoon is on "Juvenile Delinquency," a subject which is very closely related to the general topic of this Conference, as those of you who are here undoubtedly realize.

Within the last few years we have come to feel more and more that feeble-mindedness is one of the most potent factors in juvenile delinquency, but in reaching that conclusion we must be careful not to over-emphasize it, and it is in order to have some of the other aspects of the matter presented to us that we have asked Dr. John T. MacCurdy, of New York, to speak to us this afternoon. He has very kindly consented to do so, but I regret that owing to the fact that this session conflicts somewhat with another our audience is not very large. I am sure, however, you will make up in proportion what we lack in numbers.

Dr. MacCurdy is lecturer in Cornell University on Medical Psychology and is also visiting Psychologist of Randall's Island, so you see he is well equipped to discuss with us to-day every factor that is included in juvenile delinquency. It gives me great pleasure to introduce Doctor MacCurdy.

Other Factors Than Feeble-Mindedness in Juvenile Delinquency,

DR. JOHN T. MAC CURDY, NEW YORK, FORMERLY CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I come before you to-day, I must confess at the outset, not as an expert criminologist nor yet as one who is an expert in the treatment of the feeble-minded. I come rather as a psychiatrist, one whose busi-

ness it is to make a study of insanity. This is the narrow definition of the term; the broader definition is that psychiatry deals with abnormal mentation, that is, with irregular rather than defective function of the mind. It is true that our basic study is of the insane, but we constantly have reason to believe, when we compare the reaction of normal people in everyday life with those of the insane that, to follow the old truism, "everybody is a little crazy," that is, we find there is nothing essentially different in nature between the actions of the insane and the normal; it is a difference of degree, not of kind. This encourages us to believe that it may be possible eventually to understand the normal mind just as one can see something in the caricature, which is at first invisible in the miniature. Relative to the striking aberration to be found in the insane, the behavior of the delinquent is normal, although still one whose conduct departs from the standards of the average citizen. In psychiatry we constantly find that it is more and more important to discover the factors of the various diseases we see. For the purpose of our talk this afternoon, we can dispense at the outset with certain factors by saying they are due, purely and simply, to some organic defects. Others of them are reactions that occur without any definite evidence, we can see, of their being any physical trouble, that is, we may possibly imagine there has been some trouble but see no evidence of it at the time. We are forced to fall back on the view the "mind" is disarranged. Science has not yet determined a definite physical basis in these cases, so we are forced to take the view as a temporary hypothesis, at least, that these symptoms are psychological in their origin. There was some fundamental difference between these persons' minds and those of others; under certain circumstances they acted in a different way from their fellows. and this difference, this anomalous reaction, was due to their having a different setting for their ideas, that is, different desires, different sorts of emotion. All of these things, of course, can be said with equal truth of delinquents, and it is perfectly obvious that we must study the factors that underlie delinquency

if we wish to do anything at all in the way of regulating the problem.

There have been two methods, the legal method and what one might term the moral. The legal method is a makeshift. The members of the society find that it is uncomfortable, disagreeable, dangerous for them to have certain acts performed by members of the society, they agree such acts shall not be performed under pain of punishment. This method has been effective up to a certain point, but it has never done away with crime; it may have reduced it, but has not made a definite attack on the problem as a whole. And it never can, for the simple reason that it is a very formal and very rigid method, taking no account of the basic causes.

Now, the moral standpoint appeals to one a little more; it is a little more pleasant, more human, but when we view it as a practical method of approach we find as grave a defect as when we say a thing is immoral. A thing may not appear right to you that appears right to me, and we may both be, as the world judges, equally moral individuals. No subjective standard can be scientific. We oppose our moral feeling against that of the criminal, and when we accuse him of immorality we instinctively feel that much more satisfied with ourselves and a pharasaical attitude is engendered. "The sinner must suffer" is such a simple formula that we adopt it from mere economy of effort. Then, too, the moral standpoint always implies that you think the person has committed this crime from deliberate choice. As a matter of fact, Healy, who has been conducting a successful work among juvenile delinquents in Chicago, finds, in studying one thousand cases, that only one among 823 committed the crime, as far as he could find, by deliberate choice. It is perfectly obvious, therefore, there must be a great many other factors, if deliberate choice accounts for only one-eighth of one per cent. of all the crimes.

Now, the next standpoint is more natural—the psychological one. According to the psychological standpoint the legal and the moral attitudes are very well in meeting certain aspects of

the problem, but if we want to get rid of the trouble we must find out how it came about. The psychological standpoint always assumes there is a history back of the crime; it is not chance: it does not depend even on what the individual was at the time of the crime alone, but also on what he has been for a great many years. We must study his history as an individual, which includes all the influences that have moulded his life.

There has been a good deal of interest awakened in the study of delinquency of recent years, and this, I think, has been mainly due to the enthusiasm that has been aroused by the studies of the feeble-minded among delinquents. This has been really the first blow that has been struck psychologically. Now, who are the feeble-minded? In the first place, they are idiots and imbeciles, people whose mental abilities are so lowered that their defect is perfectly obvious to everybody; they speak not at all, or in a very limited measure; they have the mental capacity of a very small child. These people, of course, would be viewed as irresponsible by anyone who had an opportunity of examining them. There is no particular addition to our knowledge in telling us that idiots and imbeciles are not really to be held responsible for their crimes. The real advance in this work has come from the devotion of those who have studied the less obvious degrees of mental defect. This study has been made very largely with the Binet scale of intelligence. Such tests show poor education and a poor language ability. They demonstrate a poor understanding of ideas put into words. These tests also reveal deficient judgment. To sum it all up, one might say that the feeble-minded individual—I am speaking now of the higher grades—is different from the more normal individual by reason of the fact that he is unable to grasp abstract ideas. They can learn facts mechanically—some have extraordinary memories—but they can make no use of those facts. They cannot grasp any abstraction that is given to them. There are, of course, other tests besides the Binet, but I am speaking of it particularly to-day because it has been the main one used in the broadcast diagnosis of feeble-mindedness. This lack of

ability for abstract thought is naturally something that cannot have any sharp demarcation. We know the difference between the general practitioner and the investigator in medicine; that one is capable of a little more abstract thinking than the other; the same criterion differentiates the foreman from the day-laborer. If we apply this principle generally, we soon discover that our modern society is built on the principle of manual labor being performed by those who are to the rest of the community relatively feeble-minded. Thus our society would not go on without the feeble-minded. I am not speaking of the feeble-minded in the rigid sense of the word, but of those who have less ability than others. Manifestly the standards which we apply to delimit clinically the upper levels of these defects must be arbitrary and always open to discussion. Under these circumstances the characteristics of the subjects who just fall into any arbitrary grouping must be very similar to those of the subjects who are just over the border. Any tendency, therefore, to make feeble-mindedness synonymous with delinquency must reflect on the character of a large group of law-abiding citizens. This is a grave danger of the feeble-minded propaganda. A danger is, of course, no reason for abandonment of any project, and much has been learned of delinquency in this way. At the same time, the ease with which mental defect can be demonstrated as compared with aberration has tended to make intellectual tests a royal road to the psychological understanding of crime.

Another very important feature of feeble-mindedness is that it facilitates detection. There are a great many cases which can be permanently detained if a diagnosis has once been made of feeble-mindedness. I could quote you a typical example. A girl was taken some time ago from the Waverly Home to Bellevue to be examined. This girl was given a very careful examination and the diagnosis made that she was not feeble-minded. Some two years later the social worker who originally brought her came back to Bellevue in an angry mood. She said the doctors had been derelict in their duty because they had just learned this girl was running a high-class house of prostitution in New York.

The physician said to her, "Why, she could not have been feeble-minded or she would not have been capable of management." The woman said, "Yes, but if you had said she was feeble-minded we could have locked her up." This accounts, to a certain extent, for the zeal in diagnosis of mental defect, but should we make a scientific error for the sake of covering up a defect in our laws?

There are certain dangers in this feeble-minded propaganda. One of these I have just mentioned. There must be a larger class of feeble-minded individuals than is usually supposed, because when a census has been made of groups of workers in the lower walks of life a very large number have been found to be feeble-minded. Is it fair to say that criminology is due to feeble-mindedness, thus stamping the feeble-minded individual with crime? There is a certain form of crime that is very common itself. That crime is perhaps more often committed by colored people than white. Would it be fair to say that, because these men's skins were black, that sex crime was due to pigmentation of the skin? You may say there is undoubtedly a relation which is more than that of coincidence, but it is not the relation of cause and effect. Moreover, it would be impossible to do anything for the negro if the white race assumed that he is inevitably a sex criminal.

The next danger is, of course, a more serious one, and that is the danger to the scientific end of the problem. If we assume, as so many people seem inclined to do, that because it decreases crime to detain the feeble-minded in institutions, that the problem of crime is thereby solved, we are shutting our eyes to most important factors, and these are factors that will not be taken care of by interning the defective. I am speaking, as you can all see, with a direct point to make. I am not belittling the work for the feeble-minded, I am only pleading to have attention paid to other sides of the problem.

If we are to look for other causes we must first ask, "What is a delinquent?" Of course, there are a great many definitions which could be made. I think a practical definition will fit the case—the delinquent is one who breaks a law and gets caught.

It is really—as you will probably see as I go on—quite important to keep these rigid environmental facts in view. What can we say in a general way of the factors that produce delinquency? There are, of course, external and internal factors. The external factors are ignorance of the nature of the act and its consequences. The internal factors may be summed up as a failure to dislike anti-social behavior. If we take up the external factors first, we find this ignorance is just the sort of thing from which the feeble-minded individual most suffers. He is incapable of putting two and two together, he cannot judge of cause and effect. That naturally leads to a failure of understanding the nature of temptations. You are all familiar with this kind of difficulty. The boy who is feeble-minded is enticed into a “game” by a gang. The game is larceny. At the approach of the policeman they hand him the goods and he is caught. As a matter of fact he is essentially no more criminal than I am. He has merely been trying to be social. It is really fair enough for us to say that such people are not criminals at all, because you can see their fellows living in better surroundings more easily handled than the same number of normal individuals would be under the circumstances. Healy found that only 20 per cent. of all his juvenile delinquents could be proved to be feeble-minded. This included even the high-grade offenders. He is the only man who has ever gone seriously to work to treat each case that came to him individually; to try and find out what made each individual perform the illegal act. Manifestly, then, other factors than feeble-mindedness must account for the majority of crimes. Besides, we know the feeble-minded individual is an industrious and rather normal being if he be given a reasonable chance. If a defective person commits a crime that is not due to the sort of ignorance I have spoken of, we cannot lay it at the door of his feeble-mindedness. But we may say there is something in that man which is like that in the other eighty per cent. It is not fair to say that, if a high passion seizes a defective which is similar to that which seizes a normal-minded individual, it was the feeble-mindedness that caused the crime, it was the passion that did it. Therefore, we must analyse this side of the question.

This brings us to the internal factors. The most important is the failure of development of objective interest. The criminal is, of course, an individualist. He is interested in himself rather than in society and he has never learned as a normal individual does how to attach himself to that society. What does this mean? Every child, as we know, is a criminal if you choose to look at him from a legal standpoint. Now, what happens when that child grows up? He learns gradually to give up his more selfish desires and to adopt outlets for his individualism that are not antagonistic to society, but rather beneficial to it. As an example, one can imagine the destructive tendency of the child pulling a clock apart passing over into an interest in mechanics and going on until the boy becomes an engineer. Now, the criminal is a child, he stays a child emotionally. He has never wanted to be anything but an individualist, he has never learned to satisfy himself with the sight of pleasure in others, he has never learned to be anything but a selfish egotist. Here is where the educational factor comes in. There is a tremendous difference between the child who has gradually been taught to give up things that are harmful to his friends, and the child who is never taught to do that. That child is going to be a criminal or an unhappy individual who may go insane later in life. It is, of course, easier for the individual to remain selfish rather than become altruistic; it involves substituting immediate pleasure for future satisfaction in friendship. Therefore, education to be really effective must be modeled along those lines. It is infinitely more important for the child to learn to be unselfish than to learn the capital of Austria-Hungary, and a great deal more important to him when he grows up. If the individual has no education and he has gotten nothing from society, he has no feeling of obligation in return. This is what leads to the "social grudge." If an individual does something which he knows is not of any particular harm to anybody else, but incidentally happens to collide with the law and is arrested, he feels angered at society and is "mad." As a matter of fact it is pretty hard to make him see otherwise. He has harmed nobody as far as he can see. That sort of feeling leads to a grudge

against society and, of course, there is no more dangerous individual than one who feels the world owes him a living. These are all general factors and may all be reduced to a lack of adaptation, dependent on a poorly developed type of emotionalism.

There are special factors which I may briefly mention. The first one is the lack of outlet in the life of the individual. The boy living in poor surroundings, a drudge at home, with no chance at all there, goes to school, has an uninteresting teacher, runs away and the police officer gets him. Supposing he is returned to school and the conditions are exactly the same, has anything really been accomplished? Is the boy going to learn anything in school if he is wanting some companionship he does not get? That boy is going to break out in some direction if he is prevented from playing truant.

Again, there may be something that is akin to the altruistic in a crime. If I steal to fill my own stomach I am not as well to be thought of as the individual who steals to give to somebody else who is hungry. Such men may possess a high standard of loyalty. Loyalty is the standard of conduct to the criminal belonging to a gang. This is a good thing itself, but happens to be directed against society, as a whole, and you cannot do a great deal for that individual until you find some way of warping his spirit of loyalty into a larger, more social, form.

Then there is a very important group of offenses that come with insanity. It is a very striking thing to those of us who are trying to study insanity that the thoughts of the insane often take the form of crime. If a person has a delusion he has committed a crime, he manifestly is much nearer to committing that crime than the individual who has not any idea of it at all. Therefore, if we can find out why it is these people get the idea of crime we may perhaps be a little nearer to the solution of the problem of why people who are not insane actually become criminals.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am sorry the Doctor stopped when he did, under an aspect of the matter that was peculiarly interesting, in the statement that the law did not make any distinction. There is a great deal of truth in it, more than I wish there were.

Most of you know—surely those in Hudson and Essex County—that we have in these two counties two new institutions almost ready for occupancy. They are called by the statute which created them “Parental Schools,” and they operate both as schools and as houses of detention. In Essex County, after some planning and arranging, our committee—at least two members of our committee—thought they would like to look around a bit and see what was being done in other places. We took a trip to Chicago, where the fame of the institution known as the Juvenile Detention Home had spread to the East as well as to the West and South. We visited this institution because we had heard it was the last word in institutions of this kind in the country. It has been most successful, and we wanted to be in touch with the best that was being done. We came back and reported what we found to the other members of the board, and immediately made an effort to secure the woman who had made that institution what it is, and I am very happy to say that we succeeded. I am also happy to say that I have the pleasure of introducing Miss Delphia M. Culver, now the Superintendent of the Essex County Parental School, formerly of the Juvenile Detention Home of Chicago.

Juvenile Detention Home.

MISS DELPHIA M. CULVER, SUPERINTENDENT ESSEX COUNTY
PARENTAL SCHOOL, NEWARK.

I feel just a little bit shaky after what Judge Osborne has said, but I will try to give you just as briefly as I can what we have made an effort to work out, as to what our detention home is, and, in order that there may be no misunderstanding, I want to explain at the outset that the Essex County Parental School hopes to carry out the idea of a detention home. However, they have eliminated that word “detention,” for which I am very glad. The school will act in the capacity of a laboratory; in other words, as a clearing house for the Juvenile Court. The child will not be committed to the Parental School except in rare cases. The child will be received directly from the police

stations. We hope they will be transferred to us on street cars and by plainclothes men. If so, this will be very much ahead of Chicago, as at the present time the children are being transferred in patrol wagons and with uniformed men.

Now, as to the building of the Parental School or a House of Detention, it is a very unwise thing to have your court and your home separated. This has been demonstrated in Chicago. Because of the overcrowding of the Juvenile Home there, it was necessary to transfer the court to the county building, and now the children are being transported to and from the court in a bus. When the children are ushered out of the bus at the county building there is always a crowd of people there to meet them. When it is a delinquent girl they have taken to the court there are always ten to twenty men, and it is a very bad thing to subject a girl to anything of this kind. It lowers her sense of modesty and it gives her an idea that what she has done does not amount to very much in the eyes of society, so in the present home at Newark we have the court and the home together. The court and the offices connected with it occupy the first floor. This is a very fine arrangement. Also on that floor is a mental examining room and a medical examination room. We also hope to have a full equipment there. In the basement of the building are the two receiving rooms, one for the boys and one for girls. I think all of you who have worked with delinquents know that, as a rule, the very first thing to take place is a bath, and we shall subject the child coming to the institution to a hot-water bath, and that will be followed by an antiseptic bath. We have a very splendidly planned hospital. It is on the roof, so there will be no danger to the other children in case of contagious diseases. Newark is very like Chicago, in that when a child has a contagious disease the city cannot take care of the situation, therefore the institution has to take care of the child. As long as you deal in work that deals with children you will always have the contagious diseases, therefore must always be ready for them.

It has been found by the people who have worked in this kind of work that the dormitory system is a very bad one. I

know there are people who would not agree with me, but with the child that is under eight years of age possibly you can supervise a dormitory, but with a child who is over eight you are taking a great risk, and therefore we have developed the single-room system. No child shall be locked in its room, every child must be treated normally. You would not lock your own child in its room, therefore not in an institution. In all houses of detention one should bear in mind absolutely from the time the child enters the building until he leaves it that he must be treated as you would treat your own. When I say that I would expect you to be a very fine father and mother. The school in Newark will take care of only the delinquents. The boys on the second floor, the girls on the third. It is wise to have your kitchen on the third floor, in order that the odors of your cooking will not go through your building.

Leaving the building, I want to talk to you a little while about the organization of your work. In the first place, it is very difficult to run a home of this type under civil service, because your employees are sent to you; you have no choice whatsoever. You may pass an examination and still have no practical ideas, and therefore I do believe an examination does not really help very much. It is the individual. You must have an education, to be sure, and that is very essential, but you must have the right social attitude toward the work, and therefore it is very essential that your employees are carefully chosen. It is better, in choosing your employees, to choose those who have not had institutional training. It is better to take raw material with the right social attitude and train them to your own ideas than it is to try to undo some of the wrong ideas that have been forced upon them in some of the institutions. Then again, in institutional training in which things are cut out and dried, it is almost impossible to change their ideas. Therefore, to be absolutely sure of the persons you are engaging, I would say, take the raw material and train them. With your employees, it is necessary to impress upon them the necessity of co-operation. No employee must for a moment entertain the idea that he or she is the most important one in the institution. The cook

is important, the janitor, the school teacher, the nurse, each has its own work, but all these people must work together, because if they do not, the result will not be what you are trying to attain.

And so in this work we have been questioned as to what is the use of putting in a school when the child is only to be detained a week? The use is just this: that there are detention homes and there are detention homes—and if you are going to put a child in a detention home where he has nothing to do—and there are such places—immediately it begins to think of other things. Dr. MacCurdy has said that most of these children are not subnormal. Many are precocious, many are there because they wanted to do so many things they couldn't do in any one hour, and were caught. I think Dr. MacCurdy's definition of the juvenile offender is one of the most charming definitions I have ever heard, "one who violates the law and gets caught." So in the choice of the employees for our institution, we have attempted to choose only those whom we thought we could educate along these lines. For instance, we want everyone to be personally interested in each individual child in the building. We want them to have the true parental feeling toward the individual child. We want them to be very observing. We want them to help the psychologist and we want the psychologist to help the Judge. When the child enters the home its history will be taken in the office, it will then be given a bath, it will then be clothed in institutional clothing that is not really institutional at all. We are keeping as far away from that word as possible. The clothing is all very attractive. The girls have middies of various colors. We have chosen a middy because it will fit almost every girl. They are in different colors, and we shall allow them to choose their own. We shall help them to develop their own individuality. With the boys we have chosen the khaki trousers and knickerbockers and different colored shirts, and we are going to let the boys use their own ideas about the color. The girls will be instructed in looking after their own rooms, the setting of their tables, washing of the dishes and any work we choose to give them. We hope to

make it not labor, but a joy. We hope to instill in the minds of the children that service is really the highest calling, that is, the service of the right kind. We hope our employees will be of the type which will set an example for the individual child. Possibly you think this is impossible, but it is not. It is only just what you would do in your own private home.

As to the relationship of the home to the court, we are going to have three very important departments. That of physician: Every child will be given a physical examination. This will be a very complete physical examination. We do know that many children are handicapped by defective conditions, by adenoids, by defective hearing, and it is not discovered until they are caught, and we hope to help these children. We are having a system of cards printed, a pink card, which will denote that the child has a defect; a white card, which merely signifies the child is O. K. according to the doctor's examination. The pink card is merely pink, in order to call the Judge's attention to it quickly. This will be filled out by the physician. Then the child will be given a dental examination, and we hope to do a great dental work in the home. With the medical card as it is presented in court, the Judge will obtain the signature of the parents in order to allow us to go on with the necessary work, in order that these defects may be taken care of. We expect to have the hospitals in Newark co-operate with us, to give this work the greatest attention, and I feel very sure there will be no difficulty. There never has been in Chicago, and at the present time every delinquent boy or girl who goes through the Juvenile Court in Chicago, now has a physical examination, and the result of the physical examination is presented at the time of the court hearing.

The last, but possibly the most important department, is that of the psychologist. I say the most important just because of this, that we are all going to help the psychologist, and it will be up to the psychologist to assemble and put into concrete form all the data that has been furnished that department and give it to the Judge for recommendation, as to what should be the disposition of the child after all this careful examination has

taken place. We hope by this not only to assist the Judge in a very careful disposition of the child, but we will assist the institution to which the child is committed, and in this I think now you will understand what our function is. We hope to send the result of our examination to the different institutions. Many children will be put on probation, but this will assist the probation officer. We feel that in sending the result of our examination to the institutions it will assist the institution at once in placing that child where it belongs.

Then one other thing we hope to do, and that is to follow up the child. We have asked the different institutions to assist us in this. They have all been very lovely in responding. We hope to be of great assistance to them and we are asking them to be of the same assistance to us. We are going to have a follow-up card system, and when a child is released from an institution we are asking the institution to notify us. As nearly as possible we hope to bring the child back to the psychologist for examination after finding out what progress it has made in the institution, in order that we may have really valuable statistics.

I think I won't talk any further, because Mr. Traua is going to pick me to pieces.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am very reliably informed that Hudson County is also fortunate in the choice of a superintendent for its parental school. You have not had to go so far from home as Essex had, and the discussion this afternoon on both papers will be opened by Prof. E. G. Traua, Superintendent of the Hudson County Parental School.

PROF. E. G. TRAU—Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: When talking to Judge Osborne this afternoon he stated that the first speaker would have thirty minutes, the second twenty, and I would have the extra ten, which makes me feel like a Hyphenated American, as described by a young man at a recent examination. The young man being requested to explain the term Hyphenated American, and not exactly knowing what the question called for, arrived at a conclusion something as follows: A Hyphen is a short line between two words, therefore a Hyphenated American is a short-timer.

The previous speaker, if you will allow me to discuss this paper first, has spoken about what they expect to do in Newark, covering many points of excellency, and I agree with most of them. In our institution we will have nearly everything that Essex County people will have, with the exception of the court room. Our court room will be in the Hudson County Court House on the hill.

I heartily agree with Miss Culver when she suggests that the officers of an institution should have little or no previous experience. Hudson County has not considered the feature of previous experience, but will choose those best fitted to do the work.

One topic neglected by the previous speaker was that concerning education. In my mind the educational part of the work should be very strong. Elementary education to-day is twofold. We have what we call general education and vocational education. By general education is meant the teaching of the general use of things—for instance, how to wear hats and clothes, how to use our roads, how to take a car and transfer to a destination, but have we not neglected to teach the child how to make the hat, how to make the clothes and how our roads are constructed? If we teach the making of these things we have what we call vocational education. Now, to be sure, the child must have a general education, but why not teach the How as well as the Use.

In the institution for Hudson County great stress is being placed on the outdoor exercise, outdoor work and the manufacturing of things that are simple, things that may be marketed. Organized play and organized games, without too much supervision, will serve as a recreation. In my mind, we can over-supervise. If we are continually over the child, telling him how he ought to do, how can we expect the child ever to do these things by himself? I believe if their play and their work is organized so that it may be supervised within their own body, these children will become self-controlled to a large extent. If they have learned this play and this work—"Vocational Education," if you will—I believe that it will revert back to

general education, and they will have a greater desire to obtain more knowledge from a general standpoint. They will want to know more about the world than they already know, and they will want to know how they may qualify themselves that they may get ahead in this world. It has been said that the man who educates himself for that job which he is working on only, is a man who will always stay on that job, but a man who will educate himself for what may come in the future is a man who is bound to rise.

Going from there, I would state that vocational training in an institution might, and probably will, be the great lever toward reclaiming the juvenile delinquent. It is a fact that most of our delinquents who are not feeble-minded become delinquent due to several causes. Some of these we find due to the school. All are taught the same thing. I believe there should be a distinction made at an early age. It has been said that we have teachers who lack experience, which is one cause for delinquency, as they are not able to judge the mental attitude of the child. They have not the character of the child in mind, and they neglect to discover where the trouble lies. By visiting the home, perhaps we could get a clearer idea of why that child is a truant, instead of looking at the child for a moment and deciding that the child is a truant for a certain reason. Perhaps his clothes are poor or perhaps his hands are soiled. If we visit the homes and find out why those things are, we, as teachers, might help to reclaim that child. I have often heard this expression used before a class of boys. A boy has done something wrong or he does not pay attention, and the teacher says, "You don't know anything and you never will." Can you imagine what will become of that boy if the man or woman who stands before him, as an example, treats him in this manner?

I believe sincerely that some of the causes of delinquency are due to the school. I wish to make this statement this afternoon, that the Hoboken schools are taking care of this problem probably better, or equally as well, as any other second-class city in the State of New Jersey. We have our mental deficient

classes, our vocational classes, and we are about to have our open-air classes, which I hope to see before long.

Returning to the Parental School of Hudson County, we are located on Newark Bay, with a full expanse of water, good bathing and boating facilities, a splendid sandy playground, always dry, a beautiful live spring with possibilities of having fish hatcheries and plenty of room for raising chickens. Some of the members of our Board have expressed a desire for raising ducks.

We want to place our boys and girls just as near Nature as possible, and when I mentioned a moment ago about the aquarium or fish hatcheries with its splendid spring water, we could have different kinds of fish in tanks, built and constructed by the boys, and I will state there is enough work on our farm to keep us busy in construction work for the next three years.

I will close by extending to you all a hearty invitation to visit the Hudson County Parental School at any time that you may see fit, after the first day of September, this coming fall.

THE CHAIRMAN—We should be glad to hear from anyone who desires to disagree with any of the previous speakers, because that is one of the functions, I believe, of the discussion.

A DELEGATE—Miss Culver, if the children are not committed to the detention home, how do you retain them, by what power do you keep them?

MISS CULVER—As I understand it, in New Jersey they are merely detained until the court hears them. I think perhaps Judge Osborne can answer that better than I.

THE CHAIRMAN—Under the law, we detain them by a warrant signed by the judge, which is a formal commitment, which directs that they be sent there and detained until the case is disposed of by the court. In the first instance, if they are to be put there, they are detained there for the first day, the complaint is made by someone who knows the facts, and then an order is signed, a warrant for the child's arrest, under which the child is held until the complaint is heard.

A DELEGATE—Does the court meet every day?

THE CHAIRMAN—No.

A DELEGATE—You wouldn't detain that child until the court met?

THE CHAIRMAN—We would have to. I understand the Juvenile Court holds its sessions twice a week in Essex County, and holds its sessions of Domestic Relations one day a week. Juvenile Court is held twice a week. Of course, if necessity would require it, they would hold sessions more frequently.

A DELEGATE—Do I understand Miss Culver to say that there were only delinquent children in the detention home? The point I want to make is, what do you do with the dependent child?

THE CHAIRMAN—All children, pending disposition of the cases, are taken in by the authorities under the act under which these two institutions are being maintained. Merely dependent children are turned over to an institution known as a State Board of Children's Guardians. They take the child and place it in a family. Always in a family. It is only when they have violated the law we send them to a criminal institution.

The school in Newark is on Sussex Avenue and Hecker Street. It is open, and I want to say that we shall be very glad to have you or any and all of you come there at any time from now on and inspect the institution. We want the people to know all about it and will be glad to see you.

A DELEGATE—If in case you cannot get the signature of a parent for any physical defects, what do you do, can you enforce it?

THE CHAIRMAN—I am inclined to think I could. I have never experienced any difficulty of that kind, but I think ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the judge, with a little persuasion, could induce any parent of that child to consent to putting them there. We can impose these conditions, and if it is a minor matter I should not hesitate to have it done anyway.

MISS CULVER—In Chicago we have had no trouble about that. There have been less than ten per cent. of the parents who have refused.

A DELEGATE—We were wondering just how they handled that in the State of New Jersey..

MISS CULVER—In Chicago, the judge cannot order the operation performed unless, I think, three physicians swear that the child's life is in danger.

THE CHAIRMAN—We have no law.

A DELEGATE—The law provides you can send a parent to jail if they do not comply with that law.

A DELEGATE—I should like to ask Miss Culver just how Essex County is going to take care of the supervision of the home from which the child comes.

MISS CULVER—That, of course, is a very important factor. I believe in Essex County the judge has four officers assigned to this supervision, who make a family investigation. And they will make the whole investigation, and we hope that they also will turn that investigation in to the psychologist, and the psychologist will not conduct the examination without a personal interview with the parent.

A DELEGATE—I am interested in knowing how long the children are kept in this detention home.

THE CHAIRMAN—As long as is necessary. You cannot lay down any cut and dried rule.

A DELEGATE—For instance, there might be a number of children go into that home who are kept out of their regular school.

THE CHAIRMAN—That is just what this institution is for. A teacher will be kept there. Will they get their regular education—you mean will the instruction they receive correspond with the school course?

A DELEGATE—Yes, and are they taken care of regularly?

THE CHAIRMAN—I understand we propose, as far as we can, to correlate our course of instruction so that the child will not lose.

A DELEGATE—It would be very interesting to know how many children are sent to these homes.

THE CHAIRMAN—If the court is held in the building, almost eighty per cent. will be discharged and twenty per cent. sent to the juvenile home.

A DELEGATE—If those juveniles are detained three or four days in the home pending their disposal by the court, that makes a shifting population of children. They would not be in long enough so that you can make an impression. Isn't the plan pursued in Hudson County here the better, of a place which will be simply a detention home long enough to make an investigation and be brought before the Juvenile Court?

THE CHAIRMAN—I don't know that you say that their plan is better than the other, for this reason: Conditions are somewhat different in both these counties. For instance, I would not say our plan would be better for your county nor would I say your plan would be better for our county. We have in Essex County an institution which is largely meeting the custodial aspect of this question. It is a Newark institution. Not having such an institution for Jersey City you have to take it under your law. That leaves us only with those custodial cases outside of the city of Newark, and when you have taken out Newark you have taken away eighty per cent. of it. Then we have recourse to the Jamesburg institution. If the judge finds that he does not want to send to the Newark City Home, or if the child belongs outside of the city, to Jamesburg, he still can commit to this new institution, if under the circumstances it is wise. We were confronted with another aspect. We had in Newark a House of Detention which was not functioning properly because it was not adapted to the modern idea of what a detention home should be, so under this act we have the power of building an institution which would operate as a house of detention and as a parental school or both. Then we are confronted with this choice: Shall we put this institution in the country or city? If we put it in the country we could not use it as a house of detention, and if we put it in the city it would not have the advantages you have of large acreage and custodial care proposition. We considered our most urgent need was a house of detention, so we put this institution in the city of Newark, and our next step

will be, if the necessity seems to indicate it is wise, to put the other branch of our institution in the country, where the custodial cases will be taken care of, which may be a combination with Mr. Heller's institution. This is merely our first step to meet conditions. I have no doubt the step you have taken is the best for your particular needs, so that you cannot say that one is better than the other.

MR. CAMPBELL—One point in discussion on juvenile delinquency and the defective is the observation and training of the moral perspective. We find all children do not attain the same idea and frequently they do not all attain the same moral standard. They are born without any knowledge at all of property rights. Some children have to grow up with some idea.

THE CHAIRMAN—I fully agree with you. The moral situation is one of the most important aspects.

Monday Evening, May 1st, 1916, 8 P: M..

Mental Deficiency in Business and Industry.

ALEXANDER C. HUMPHREYS, LL.D., PRESIDENT OF STEVENS
INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, CHAIRMAN.

I feel much embarrassed at being called upon to preside at this meeting. I start out by saying that if there is any one subject I don't know anything about it is the subject of the evening.

We are to have an opportunity to-night to listen to men who are qualified to instruct us as to the causes of deficiency as found in business and the industries, and the remedies to be applied in the effort to transform deficiency into efficiency. I make no claim to any expert knowledge on this subject, if by mental deficiency is meant feeble-mindedness.

If we are to consider the subject broadly, then mental deficiency can be considered relatively. A. may be competent to do certain work competently, but compared with B., as far as mentality is concerned, he may be deficient. But yet A. may be the better man and the better citizen.

My experiences with mental deficiency in the persons of those I have met in the fields of business, industry, engineering, and education have not as a rule pointed to feeble-mindedness, but rather to bad training and lack of discipline.

We hear much to-day about preparedness, and we have to listen to warm, if unconvincing, arguments against preparedness. I can readily understand why there are many people in this country of ours who are not in favor of preparedness. If we fail to prepare our boys and girls for self-support and so for self-respect in times of peace, we are not likely to think it necessary to prepare for self-defense in times of war.

In what I am about to say, I fully expect to be misunderstood by many if not all of those present. But that cannot be helped. My experiences teach me that every man who discusses a question at issue is misunderstood in some degree.

I hold that the children of this country, speaking generally, while acknowledging that there are marked and happy exceptions, are not trained by our public school system for self-support. Efficient education or preparation should be *fundamentally* strong. The superstructure should not be begun until the firm foundation is laid. In the effort to carry all the boys and girls up through all the grades, while holding out the college as the goal for all, we injure the great mass of pupils.

We are too much inclined to conduct our schools and colleges as if all education and training must be obtained from school books and laboratories. To prepare our children for life's work we should above all things teach them that the school training is only preparation for the great school of experience beyond, and that in that school they will finally have to demonstrate whether they are to be counted as deficient or efficient. They should be taught the joy to be found in the contemplation of a task well performed, completely done, no matter how lowly the task. They should be encouraged to strive constantly to improve the quality of their performances. The praise and prizes should not be limited to the high per cent. students, but *improvement* in grade, in quality of real performance, should be generously acknowledged. Everything possible should be done to cultivate the sense of responsibility. Instead of allowing, or still worse encouraging, the false idea that freedom means exemption from legitimate restraint, the youngsters should be taught that much of the oratory in praise of freedom is nothing better than buncombe. They should be taught from the first days of their school life that the right of a free people to govern themselves carries with it the obligation to do their full duty as citizens in peace or war. They should not be allowed to think that citizenship in a free country can be rightfully enjoyed by those who refuse to accept the responsibilities of this citizenship.

All this means a tremendous responsibility resting upon us all in view particularly of the immigrants of widely varying extraction and previous environment who are coming to our shores either not informed or positively misinformed as to what

liberty really means. These people must be largely remade if they are to be safely added to our army of voters.

Here is a grave responsibility resting upon our representatives in Federal and State halls of Legislature, a responsibility which is but poorly met in too many cases, and especially so by those who are cursed by fluency of speech without the counterbalance of common sense and sound principles.

One of our great troubles in this country is our tendency to make laws without due consideration. We are prone to take up reform measures with good intentions and little else to guide us. Not infrequently even the good intentions are not in evidence. I wish I had a census of the reform societies now in existence in this country. Perhaps I should not use the term "in existence," for many of them do little else than send out circulars asking for contributions to their work.

As an indication of the mental deficiency of the heads of many of these associations, they are constantly, repeatedly, applying to those who are already enrolled as members to become members of their beneficent undertaking. I am not speaking from theory.

We hear much about the low wages paid in certain fields. But the wages paid in this country are much higher than the wages paid in Europe, and in some of the countries abroad the wage earner lives more happily than does the same class here. We are not a frugal people, and we do not spend money efficiently. There is room for betterment, of course, but this can come finally only through wise and kindly co-operation on the part of all in interest. It never will come through some of the methods now followed by those who are at loggerheads over the labor question. It certainly never will come by trying to keep down the ambitious, capable, and honest workers to the level of the indifferent, incapable, and dishonest workers.

In all reform movements there is a balance to be preserved between extremes; there are advantages and disadvantages in every human project which can be suggested. We engineers are constantly forced to recognize this fact, and this is just the fact which so many enthusiastic reformers fail to recognize.

Another fact to be recognized is that this condition is to continue indefinitely, and that ideal conditions are not to be found in this world. The millennium is not here and, in my opinion, never will be in this life. This is not fatalism or pessimism, but it is the expression of the belief that it is our duty to recognize the facts and then to work constantly for better conditions without being discouraged because we do not secure perfection.

I have been asked—Are the schools, or the captains of industry, or the workers in the industries, to blame for the conditions which we have occasion at times to deplore? Change the “or” to “and.” We are all to blame, and that is why we must honestly co-operate to secure improvement.

Coming a little closer to the topic which has been assigned for discussion this evening, I believe there are many men and women now leading useless or criminal lives who could be leading decent and useful lives if they had been taught to do some one thing well rather than left with a smattering of many subjects. And those who are taught to do some one thing well are not necessarily so narrow in mental vision. At least they are equipped to secure self-respect, and short of this there cannot be self-respect and good citizenship.

Many a good mechanic has been spoiled by trying to make him into a clerk, a lawyer, a doctor, an engineer, or a minister of the gospel. Personally, I would far rather be a really efficient mechanic than an inefficient member of any of the professions, including that of the church.

In closing, let me say one hopeful word—I am sure that in the last ten years we have made progress in our schools—at least to the extent that there are now more people than formerly who are willing to acknowledge the faults, and less people who are ready to applaud the empty orator who claims that our educational system is close to perfection.

If we are to improve the conditions in any field of activity, we must first locate accurately the faults to be corrected. The first step towards applying a cure is to settle upon a correct diagnosis.

One remedy I can suggest, but it is a remedy most difficult to

apply in democracy—eliminate politics from the management of the schools.

And now, I doubt not, you will find it a relief to listen to the specialists who have come here to instruct us.

I think it is only fair in introducing the first speaker to say that the delay this evening was not due to the speakers but is due to the New York, New Haven and Hartford Road. The first address of the evening will be by Dr. G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, Worcester, Mass. We shall now have the pleasure of listening to a man who really understands his subject, "The Basis of Mental Deficiency." It gives me great pleasure to introduce Dr. Hall.

The Basis of Mental Deficiency.

BY G. STANLEY HALL, PH.D., PRESIDENT OF CLARK UNIVERSITY,
WORCESTER, MASS.

I. We can best understand the bases of deficiency if we glance for a moment at efficiency, its opposite. This movement, which the late Mr. Taylor did more than anyone else to inaugurate, is rapidly taking on the dimensions of a great culture movement and is spreading to new firms, lines of business, and even to new countries, for although English and German writers had given us foregleams of it, it is essentially made in America. Mr. Gilbreth with great refinement of photographic apparatus is now recording in the form of moving pictures the actual path traversed by the hand in performing many manual activities, from folding a handkerchief to sewing, typewriting, and the rest. The path of these movements he is able to represent by wires in a way that shows the surprising reduction of the path traversed by the hand as a result of skill and practice aided by scientific training. It has already been demonstrated that very many manual occupations can be reconstructed so as to be performed with great economy of effort by careful study, and that the traditional modes of doing many things are very wasteful of human energy. The efficiency movement is applicable not only to about every form of skilled but of unskilled labor. It is

surprising, too, to see how inefficient are the forms of many of the commonest tools that have come down to us from antiquity and how little changed they are. Their conventional form involves great waste of effort and often they require unhygienic postures and types of effort.

Efficiency is applied also to accounting, with a view to reducing the ten thousand annual failures in this country by teaching effective methods of keeping tab on income and outgo, so that each night the responsible head of every firm knows just where he stands on the profit and loss scale. The efficiency movement has entered education, and we have now nearly two-score surveys from the universities to public school systems in general which show, as we might have expected, great waste of both effort and money. School buildings, organizations, teacher training, the matter and the method of instruction, have all been subjected to careful examination by experts, and although some of the latter have undertaken more than their competency or training justified, on the whole great good has come.

The movement is already showing signs of raising the whole life of man to a higher potential. It is connected with second breath or the reinforcement that comes to body and mind alike when in striving for an end we push our efforts through the ripples of fatigue and experience the great reinforcement that nature can supply from her deep unconscious autistic reserves, and are able to go on and outdo ourselves. In every skilled activity requiring speed, like, for instance, typewriting, the early stages of improvement are easy and certain, but there often comes a time when practice ceases to cause improvement. But when this plateau is reached, if extra effort or time is persistently applied, the individual finds himself rising to a higher level of rapidity, and the erethic development of this higher power of man becomes a permanent acquisition. He can thereafter ever more easily avail himself of this resource. Inspiration and what used to be called the afflatus of the muse are of just the same nature. It is interesting to note in passing that some of the best recent studies of the psychology of Jesus represent that he differed from other supermen in being in this ecstatic

state most of the time. The future of the world belongs to those who develop these higher powers, and we are learning that there is a long series of gradations from average ability up and that we must evaluate men more or less upon that scale, although we as yet have no effective methods of measuring superiority as we have of measuring its opposite.

II. When we turn to the defect of which super-efficiency is the excess, we find also very many grades, but these we are now learning to measure by scale and standard. The incapables or those born short are of all grades, from slight inferiority down to the lowest idiocy. The care of these laggards in the upward race is now a very serious proposition. From the study of the Jukes to the admirable study made by Goddard of the Kallikaks at the New Jersey institution associated all over the country with the names of Johnstone and Goddard, and studies of perhaps a dozen other degenerate families that have been traced, we learn that their existence is a dreadful handicap upon the community, the State, the Nation. It is not merely the cost of supporting the paupers, imbeciles and criminals that abound in such families, but it is the moral infection they spread. They corrupt individuals and communities, and where they are found in schools they tend to lower its standards by attracting more than their share of the teachers' attention, which from the principles of efficiency should more of it be given to the upper half than the lower half of the class. An eminent physician, a friend of mine, is convinced that if all the insane in all the American asylums were turned loose upon the community, and these institutions were filled up by degenerates, although there would be some murders and other crimes and great inconvenience, it would be far less than that which is now constantly caused by the rather high-class moron or imbecile who can just manage to keep out of an institution and propagate his or her kind, while corrupting the community. Of the over one hundred types of welfare institutions which our university has attempted to keep tab on, nearly two-thirds are devoted to the care of the incapables of various classes, and I may add my own personal conviction that to their study and care to-day more native ability, insight and

ingenuity and probably more research is given than is given to the normal children in our public schools. It is not a question solely, however, of eugenics that is involved, but there are many others.

III. Now, what are the bases of inefficiency? The time has long gone past when we can hope ever to find a single basis that accounts for all kinds of defect or shortcomings. Rather we must consider it something as follows. There is one great momentum of life, variously named, which is at the basis of heredity, which Bergson calls the *elan vital*, Spencer the evolutionary nisus, Schopenhauer the will to live, Jung libido. There are many other designations of the initial energy that impels life from the fertilization of the ovum to the death of the mature individual. This is the ultimate thing, the *summum bonum*; it determines the trajectory of every life. The quantum of this genetic momentum is what makes every kind of eminence, success, efficiency. Now, the bases of inefficiency consist simply of a list of those influences that check this primal developmental energy. Many, particularly Dr. Gould, have stressed eyestrain, and he and many others have shown that very often, without any consciousness of the patient or his friends, there are various eye defects which tense up the nervous system, bring headaches, affect digestion, cause a nervous condition, make study impossible, and not only check growth and progress, but undermine the constitution. We have records galore of where correct diagnosis and prescription of glasses have brought a wondrous improvement in health, vigor, intelligence, progress. Precisely the same is true of the ear, the literature concerning which abounds in records of the same kind. There are very many degrees of acoustic acuity, from almost total deafness up to a low-grade muffled hearing, which causes children who suffer from it to manifest many of the symptoms of idiocy when in fact there is no innate mental inferiority. Sometimes this trouble cannot only be located, but relieved, to the great benefit of the intellect. Again, adenoids have had their hobby-riders. Perhaps no one has over-emphasized their deleterious influence or the importance of having them removed betimes, although the

real question is one of relative importance, because specialists always need to be reminded that there are others. Lately we have heard very much about several other physical causes, such as lung capacity or vital index, and blood pressure. These, perhaps, are likely to be very fundamental in the near future. One of the most promising of these candidates for the head of the list of causes of inefficiency is now inner secretions and the hormone theory, which is developing a precious little body of literature of its own. Others believe that syphilis and its sequelæ and perhaps inherited results are responsible for a considerable percentage of deficiency. Others stress the teeth, and they, too, rightly. Very many young lives have been rescued almost as by a miracle from inefficiency by having the teeth reconstructed, for we did not until lately realize how many ramifications throughout the whole system dental defects could have. Now, all these specific abnormalities or defects contribute to diminish the momentum of the developmental energy and to the extent they do so they are causes of inefficiency.

IV. We find many, too, when we come to the environment. One cause of inferiority of many children is insufficient or unfit food, and this of course begins with nursing. The immense chemical difference known between human milk and that of the cow as represented by such tables as those of Bunge is suggestive. Extensive studies in France show that every three months of breast nursing increases the average stature, weight, health and probably viability of soldiers, and if of soldiers, then no doubt of other classes. It is a well-established fact, too, that in the hot months in cities, when babies sometimes die like flies, the mortality of those artificially fed is several fold that of those nursed normally. With children proper and abundant food is of the utmost necessity all through the growing period. This, too, I need not dwell on here, for it has become a commonplace of school and home hygiene. Something the same, too, might be said of air, ventilation, deep respiration, which are very essential, but this we now know by heart. The same is true of exercise. Vice, particularly sexual error, is another of the great deterrents or arrestors of human develop-

ment. It is a fatal law that no organism can remain long on the same level. It must either grow or deteriorate, so that the *vita sexualis* must be enumerated as another factor. Alcoholism, too, blights and greatly reduces the efficiency of all those it masters. Indeed, every untoward and unhygienic part of the environment tends to deterioration.

V. Psychoanalysis has shown us the immense importance of the first three or four years of life for future maturity and sanity. We have generally felt in this respect that babies would take care of themselves, but we are now learning otherwise. Who would have dreamed, ten years ago, that the passionate erethic sucking of stoppered nipples or *placebos* would dispose a child years later to self-abuse? Who would have imagined that acquainting young children with sex activities in adults is liable to cause psychic trauma, while most other kinds of infection of evil by contagion they are immune from? Who would have dreamed that the majority of the thousand of cases of neurosis and psychosis when analyzed would show that the causes are to be found in the tenderest years of life? Here again, then, we have causes of arrest, and all deficiency and perversion is arrest. There are two rival views here, one that of Freund himself, who insists that the function of our nature that transmits the torch of life is the key of all disorders, while Adler believes that their key is found in checks upon the personal ambition that everyone has to be and do something in the world to make the most and best of himself or herself, and that the spur to this is the horror of inferiority. Janet had long before said that everybody has an inspiration to perfection, and when he or she find they cannot attain it, there is liable to be depression, and therefore repression, for the two go together.

VI. But I cannot dwell upon these points, interesting and suggestive as they are I must add one other. We are changing our notions of fear and anger. The latter, instead of being regarded as a mere lack of self-control, an ebullition, or outburst of temper or irritability, is really, when understood even in these, its degenerate offspring, the substance of the positive

aggressive energy of man, which has not only pushed him on and up in the world, but made him conqueror of the great beasts that once were his rivals, and later on of nature itself. Man is the maker, the doer, the energizer. He has to attack and overcome, and has fought his way up to his present position in the world. The various little symptoms that we know of anger, violent as they sometimes become, are only the aborted relics of this positive aggressive energy. Fears, on the other hand, of which several hundred morbid fears or phobias have been listed, are degenerate relics likewise, but relics of an opposite instinct, namely, of adjustment, adaptation, or docility. Fear is the mother of wisdom. Man has had to accommodate himself to nature and learn of her. Fear is the best instance we have in the modern world of man's passivity, of his learning of and yielding to his environment. We are now coming to feel that among the tests to which every child has a right to be subjected once in a while should be the tests of these qualities of fear and anger. In view of what has been said, the assertion needs no proof that adults, and the community in general, owe now a new debt to children, and I think it is the school that owes it more than the home. Every child, certainly of school age, ought to have eyes, ears, mouth, teeth, chest, etc., tested, with a glance at its environment, food, etc., in order to see whether there are not very active causes of arrest and inefficiency that are at work, even in the most growing years. It is, to be sure, a benign principle in nature by which a child can be retarded by adverse influences within or without, for two or three years, and pretty much make up for the handicap afterwards if conditions become favorable, but it should not come to this. We must not forget that there are thousands of children in our schools to-day for whom such an annual examination would, on the whole, do more than an entire year of schooling.

Thus we see that in the face of this problem we are like the Norse hero, told to pick up a snake. When he sought to do so he found that it was the great serpent Sesha that went around the world and held it together. If we cannot do something to remove causes of inefficiency our civilization in the end is

doomed. There is a sense probably in which we are all arrested more or less. We have not all of us used up the great energy of heredity, the most precious of all worths and wealths. Much of it has not been let out and much has been wasted and mis-directed. I think we may console ourselves a little with the in some respects very inspiring literature of the superman. Nietzsche, as you know, all his life preached the gospel that man to-day is only a link which will be a missing one like the Java man. Our remote descendants will be so much beyond us that they will be ashamed of us, and will feel in digging up our relics as we do in studying the cave-man. Man is a bridge to something higher. This in some respects is a very pleasing gospel as well as a sad one in other respects. There is certainly hope in the bottom of this casket. If all the energy that nature gives so richly to young people in the teens, if their passion for the good, the true and beautiful had free scope, and could realize itself, it would not only lift them all to a higher plane of development, but sweep away about all the evils in the world. Indeed, every human institution, church, State, school, home, literature, science, has as its ultimate measure and criterion of value what it contributes to bring man to an ever completer maturity. The momentum of life which we all start with before birth, and which has a great acceleration at puberty, is like the water that comes down from heaven in the western mountains. It is abundant and makes great floods and freshets, but cuts deep canons and leaves hundreds of thousands of acres desert the rest of the year. A true psychological engineering would dam these freshets, prevent their running off in vice, idleness or defect, and store the floods of humanism so that they could irrigate the whole life.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am sure we have all been very much interested in Dr. Hall's discourse. I know that I am personally under obligation to him, because I have been feeling rather blue of late, and now I understand that I am in the right condition of mind to lose my temper, as I frequently do, and so I am encouraged.

The next speaker should have been Dr. Royal Meeker, but I believe he is called away, so will not speak to-night. We have with us the Assistant Superintendent of Schools of Newark, Cephas I. Shirley, who will talk to us on "Vocational Guidance and Co-operation with Factories." I have the pleasure of introducing Mr. Shirley.

Vocational Guidance by Mental Test.

CEPHAS I. SHIRLEY, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEWARK.

Vocational Guidance, from the viewpoint of measured mentality, has evolved a very interesting problem. In fact, there is not a question confronting the public to-day that is comparable in importance with that of mental tests. For years the public has patiently waited for scientists and exponents of professional life to produce an effective solution of this problem. When serious and logical thought is given the finance of public education, and a keen appreciation is acquired of the great amount of money expended for the education of the boys and girls of this or any other city, largely without definite knowledge as to how much of the investment they will ever be in a position to capitalize, some idea will be gleaned of the value of substantial knowledge of the question of true Vocational Guidance. Careful consideration has been given every theory advanced and every plan promoted tending toward the establishment of a scientific method of mental diagnosis.

Very recently my attention was called to an electrical apparatus used as a mental measuring machine. In the Research Laboratories of Dr. M. P. Von David, Physicist and Psychologist, a number of tests were carried on under my personal supervision. Altogether eight boys and girls were examined, two of whom were blind. The results of these tests agreed so perfectly with the known characteristics of the subjects examined, that an account of them has been deemed worthy a place in this report.

The System.

An exhaustive analysis of this highly technical subject, involving a system of measuring and recording the electrical currents occurring in the body under various thoughts, reflex action and other phenomena, for which the brain seems to be responsible, would require many pages.

The system is an invention of Dr. M. P. Von David. Briefly, it consists of three essential factors:

- a. The child.
- b. The compensating apparatus.
- c. Recording apparatus.

Method of Measurement.

To carry out the Vocational Test, three rooms, as delineated on the accompanying blue print, are used—one for the subject, who is quite alone, another for the operator of the compensating device or "Wheatstone Bridge," and the third, for the galvanometer recording apparatus, and graduated scale from which the readings are taken by the observer.

The Examination.

The subject, seated before a table, completes an electrical circuit with the compensating and recording apparatus, by placing the two fingers of one hand in twin cups containing mercury and a sodium chloride solution. The table is located in a partitioned portion of the room, and no fixtures or objects to attract the eye are visible to the subject other than the screen on which words may be flashed with the aid of a stereopticon machine. In the examination of blind children, cards are substituted on which words are printed in embossed type for the blind. In this position, by means of the compensating device, the child is placed in electrical equilibrium or balance with the apparatus.

In order to observe the slightest deflection of the galvanometer needle, an oscillograph attachment is used, the mirrors of which,

by reflection, cast a needle of light upon the graduated scale. At first the words, projected upon the screen before the subject, cover broadly the various vocations. The test is then broken for a short time, and during the interim a complete physical examination is made, and the history of the child recorded as far as it can be determined.

To establish the physiological age, X-rays of the hands and measurements of the head are taken. At the concluding session the words, which give pronounced electrical response, are taken up individually; each is divided into roots and derivatives and again projected upon the screen. The words "Art" and "Artist," for instance, are divided into a series of words, such as: sketching, painting, decorating, designing, caricaturing, cartooning, life-drawing, modeling, carving, etc. This part of the process is known as the "Run-Down Test."

How Vocational Tendencies are Fully Determined.

Each word is numbered; when flashed upon the screen the number is given by the operator to the observer by telephonic communication. The observer, with eyes riveted upon the needle of light, records the deflection of the galvanometer, upon the scale, carefully noting the number of graduations passed.

When the test is completed the corresponding words are incorporated in the record, part of which may appear as follows:

<i>Number.</i>	<i>Word.</i>	<i>Reading on Scale.</i>
11	accountant	0
21	architect	0
6	author	$\frac{1}{2}$
9	athlete	$2\frac{1}{2}$
10	artisan	0
14	attorney	7
X	actor	3
Y	apothecary	1
Z	banker	4

It should be remembered that this record of the subject's inherent fundamental impulse of the subconscious mind is purely relative, and has no value until compared with the "Norms."

Norms.

The chief requisite in plotting the vocational curve of the subject is found in the relation between various words and suggestions, and the sympathetic reaction in different minds. This data was obtained by making a series of tests on five thousand boys and girls. From this information curves were plotted and characteristics developed, which gave the units of standard called "Norms."

Keeping in mind the fact that the readings are only relative, their truthfulness cannot be established until the corresponding curve of the Norms is superimposed. By this method the percentage of sympathy for certain avenues of life's activities, as compared with the average boy and girl, is readily obtainable. An examination of a greater number of children would, no doubt, change the Norms to some extent.

The curves of six of the eight children examined have been plotted. Photographic reproductions of two of them are herewith submitted, together with head measurements and X-ray photos of the hands of the subjects.

By referring to curve, case No. 608, it will be noted that the subject is below the normal in several vocations, the most pronounced being stenography. From this curve, we conclude that stenography is one of the subjects or vocations in which the young lady should not engage, while the high peaks shown in the "Run-Down Test," point to a successful career in the creating and designing of woman's wear.

In case No. 605, more peaks are seen, showing interest in a greater number of vocations and a much higher percentage to the Norms.

If these results are decisive and conclusive, and if by this means boys and girls can be started on life's pathway with a clear and concise knowledge of their innate tendencies and capa-

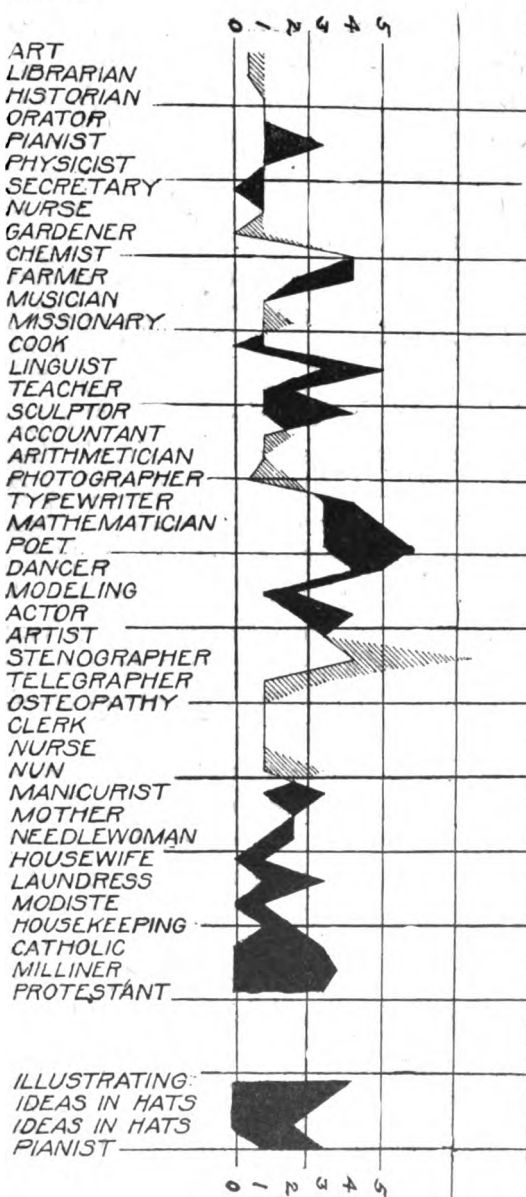
bilities, with assurance that the best results in life are open to them, words are entirely inadequate, and computations incompetent to express the great value to mankind of this system of Vocational Guidance.

VOCATIONAL TEST.

CASE 608—GIRL. AGE, 15 YRS. 3 MOS.

Test Conducted Under the
Observation of
Mr. CEPHAS I. SHIRLEY,
Asst. Sup't of Schools,
Newark, N. J.

Result—Housekeeping efficient but ability lies
in creating and designing along the
lines of a modiste.



RUN DOWN TEST.
Test Made Oct. 22d, 1915.

RESEARCH LABORATORIES, INC.,
ORANGE, N. J.

The hour is getting late. I wish to close my remarks by thanking you for the permission you have accorded me in coming before you to-night, and particularly for the patience you have had to listen to this talk.

THE CHAIRMAN—In closing, I would like to say a word or two in following up what Mr. Shirley has said about co-operative schools. I assume some of you know of the work that Dr. Herman Snyder, of the University of Cincinnati, is doing. His particular work in that place is confined to engineering students, and the plan is something like this. So many fellows have come in that he has succeeded in making arrangement with the industries of the town. Boy A goes to school for two weeks, and young man B goes to some particular industrial establishment. B comes back and takes A's place in college and A goes to the same place. They do this for six years. That is not a new idea except with regard to the details. The University of Glasgow has been doing this for many years. They have their students go to the university for six months in the year and then go to work on the Clyde for six months. They get their education after they leave college. The co-operation that Dr. Snyder has taken up is carried not only into the colleges, but he is going down into the lower grades and working throughout the country in a most unselfish way. He has gone into many of the industrial establishments of Cincinnati where conditions were very bad.

I would like to say one word in conclusion, and there may be some in the room would be inclined to smile at my coming back to a vocational topic. I believe that the foundation of industrial training is the three R's. I am not sure, but I know that that is the fact. Imagine a man who wants specialized study because you want to teach boys and girls reading and writing. I am delighted to know that Newark is doing this in a common-sense way. We must first teach the children the three R's and build up on that, then we will have something to work on. I don't believe we are ever going to teach boys and girls trades in public schools. We are to get them ready to go out and learn their trades on the outside.

Tuesday Morning, May 2d, 1916, 9 O'clock.

SECTION MEETING ON HOUSING.

W. L. KINKEAD, PRESIDENT NEW JERSEY ASSOCIATION, CHAIRMAN.

The New Jersey Housing Association, which I chance to represent, was organized about three years ago for the purpose of trying to improve housing conditions throughout the State. Sentiment in favor of this was created at the Philadelphia National Housing Conference which a number of us attended. We have had three conferences, the first in Newark, one at Trenton, and one at Passaic last spring, which was one of the largest housing conferences ever held. We have helped make preliminary surveys in towns and changed conditions in a way that stirred them up.

During the past winter our secretary made a number of speeches in various places, and I have followed with talks before men's and women's clubs, etc. Health officers throughout the State have managed to stir up considerable interest. We have written letters of advice and information.

We have stood each year in defense of our present Tenement House Commission. It is an unfortunate condition that one of our neighboring cities has not been able to educate all her people, that some laws have to be made which may seem undesirable to a few but are for the good of all. It was gratifying to all of us this year to find that the legislators were so broad-minded that they turned down adverse bills—such as 312, etc., formulated by this city to break down the present law by putting the administration of that law into the hands of the various Boards of Health of the first and second-class cities. The unfortunate part was that several bills, intending to place two-family houses under the department, were lost in Committee after passing the House. It may not have come to the knowledge of all of you that many single-family houses have just as bad conditions as tenements. I have known of houses in my own town with not two inches of

space between them, and with dark rooms, and no State law to touch them.

We find that housing covers such points as tax reform, improved economic conditions, the regulation of the height of buildings, town planning, etc. All of these are affected, more or less, by the wage question. The thought came to me yesterday while at the tuberculosis pavilion at Laurel Hill. I was talking to a patient there in one of the buildings and he said to me, "I have been here since last August, I am going out of here shortly; I am very much improved, but I do not know when I get home what I should do to take care of myself. I have not learned anything about what I am to do when I leave here. No one has told me about it at all, what food I should eat, how I should sleep, etc." That is the thought I want to leave with you. Are we solving the problem fully in just sending them to a sanatorium to recover and then allowing them to go home to conditions that are not just what they should be? Are we properly following them, so we know that within two years whether they are dead or on their way to health?

According to the last report New York City has 56,987 apartment houses. New Jersey has half as many as New York City. Our twenty-six inspectors cover the entire State. New York has two hundred and thirty-eight who cover New York City and Manhattan. We have about one-ninth of what New York has. Our inspectors have to see 1,889 buildings a year, New York inspectors see 438. We expended last year \$65,578.39, New York \$712,548.40. We spend \$1.28 per tenement while they spend \$6.85.

We have about one-fourth of what New York has, but scattered over the entire State. Are we doing what we can?

Mr. Beemer has been interested in the Tenement House Commission for several years. He is to speak to us this morning on "Safeguarding the Home."

Safeguarding the Home.

MILES W. BEEMER, MEMBER STATE BOARD OF TENEMENT HOUSE-
SUPERVISION, JERSEY CITY.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I am sure I will not take issue with Mr. Kinhead in making this comparison. I am very glad he made it, because that is the prime object we have in view with tenement house work in this State, to interest people in the State in the fact they are not spending enough money to properly take care of the tenements of the State, and I hope that next winter some of you will be good enough to use your influence in trying to obtain for the Tenement House Department the money it actually needs. It really is a shame to think the work of the department is hampered as it is, by inability to obtain the necessary funds from the Legislature to properly supervise the house conditions in various parts of the State that could be greatly bettered if we had the force to supervise them and enforce the law as it stands. The department also contemplates having some bills introduced similar to the bills of this year, which will strengthen the law. We ask your support for those measures next winter.

First, I want to say a word on Hoboken conditions. I want, particularly, to ask your support and influence for the achievement of the work of the Hoboken Housing Association. I consider that Hoboken is to-day in its infancy. That may seem rather strange to some of the citizens who think that Hoboken is entirely built up, but I tell you in a very few years the character of Hoboken will change greatly, and many buildings that have stood for years will be torn down and apartments or tenements will be built in their place. I consider that the groundwork for a much better Hoboken has been laid by the coming of commission government, by the buildings erected by the Hoboken Land and Improvement Company, by the prospects of proper sewer development and by the organization of the Hoboken Housing Association. I believe this organization is a valuable asset, not only from the humanitarian standpoint, but

from a dollars-and-cents standpoint. You cannot expect to keep the workingmen in Hoboken unless you give them proper conditions in which to live. So that if the people of Hoboken will support the Hoboken Housing Association it will not only be a real benefit to the health of the community, but also to its financial prosperity.

Another encouraging fact is that your health officer has shown such splendid interest in the improvement of health conditions; that may seem to you a very small matter, and you take it, perhaps, as a matter of course, but there are other cities in New Jersey, as well as in other parts of the country, but especially in New Jersey—I have several in mind—where all the work is met with antagonism on the part of the health officer. In one city particularly an appeal has been made to the State Board to remove the health officer because of his failure to enforce laws and because the people are unable to obtain any aid from him whatsoever. I say to you, particularly to those who are members of the Hoboken Housing Association, it is a very fortunate thing for you that you have a big, broad-minded officer, a man with some push to him, who is really interested and ready to help in bettering the conditions in Hoboken.

THE CHAIRMAN—Before Mr. Beemer leaves the floor I would like to ask him a question. Can you tell us how many fire-escapes have been put up during the past few years?

MR. BEEMER—I could not tell you accurately; something over four thousand the last two years.

THE CHAIRMAN—We are going to have an opportunity here for discussion, if there is anyone else in the audience who would like to ask a question. Mr. Beemer must get away soon.

A DELEGATE—I would like to ask what, if anything, is being done in regard to painting up or cleaning up. Can we do anything under the law?

MR. BEEMER—Yes; it does come within the law. We require that houses must be cleaned, walls properly calsomined, cellars cleaned—by the way, it is such a small thing, cellar cleaning, you would think we would have little difficulty. It

is one of the hardest things to get people to do. After we serve them three or four notices we have to summon men to court.

A DELEGATE—How much is the inspector paid?

MR. BEEMER—\$1,200.

I am sorry I have to run away. Most of you are interested in the general question of child welfare. When I first started in the work, twenty years or more ago, we did not hear anything about preventive work, we didn't even think in those terms. We supposed the main thing we could do was to take the child and put it in a large institution, educate him in regiments, feed him in swarms, clothe him in uniforms. That was only about twenty years ago, and I know very well when I first talked instructive, preventive work—removing the causes of poverty—I was looked upon as a very extreme radical. We have come very far since then. A great many people now believe that it is more productive of results to remove the causes of poverty; that poor housing is one of the prime causes of poverty, and bad light for our bad social conditions. When we have no more homes, this country or any other will cease to be a nation. We must conserve the home and build up the homes of the future. If any of you have any doubt as to whether we are building the home up for the future, I commend you a trip around the homes of Hoboken or Jersey City or Passaic or New Brunswick, or any other of your important communities in the State of New Jersey. I don't mean your own home, but I do mean the homes of the people, not only those living in tenements, but private dwellings. Don't make any mistake and think the tenement is the only evil thing. I know many tenement houses provide quite as good homes as the rich man's mansion. It isn't all the landlord, all the bad light. A whole lot of it is bound up in the religions or habits or deficiencies or selfishness of the people.

We have the great task of educating whole communities. I would be perfectly willing to swear that there is very little teaching in this building or the schools of Hoboken as to real home making, very little as to the essential principles of hygiene,

very little about the care of the body or the care of the child. The girls are not taught to be mothers, boys are not taught to be fathers; girls are not taught to be housewives. We cannot have homes under those conditions. You cannot take up the problem of tuberculosis without housing; you cannot take up the problem of the industrial development of the community without housing. So I might go through every branch of the present-day activity and point out the relation to housing. We spend nearly all of our time in a house of some kind or other, and it is very important that this house should be built and kept right. Study the situation in your own community and talk to everybody, stir them up, talk housing while at work, in your business, see that ten people in your town know something of housing this year. Next year take ten more. See that you know the local conditions, see that your newspaper men know it, see that your health officers know it. Those are the things you can do; everybody in this audience can be a little center of infection of the germ of housing reform during the coming year. Everyone make up his mind now that next year "I will see ten people who will study this subject of housing."

THE CHAIRMAN—Mr. Beemer, in his talk, brought to my mind, in speaking of the Hoboken Housing Association, a point I would like to emphasize, and that is that Hoboken is largely the port of entry for our immigrants. They get their first ideas in Hoboken as to what housing is. Hoboken has improved, to my mind, a great deal recently. I know more and more improvements will come. If we do not set the right standards for these people as they come in touch with it first, we are going to fail in our duty as American citizens, so back up the Hoboken Association.

Mr. Gove, who will speak to us next, will speak on "Industrial Housing" and its need.

Industrial Housing.

GEORGE GOVE, SECRETARY, BRIDGEPORT CHAMBER OF COMMERCE,
BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

It will be necessary, in the short time I have, to confine my remarks on Industrial Housing to one phase of the subject. But as Mr. Beemer said, you cannot talk about one without touching on others.

The æsthetic and social aspects of housing have received serious consideration by social agencies in most American communities, by national and state housing associations and other organized bodies. Too little thought has been given to the potentialities of organized community effort in the field of financing the erection of workingmen's dwellings. In this field the speculative builder is practically alone and to him has been left the decision as to what to erect, under the provisions of the building code, and how to finance the operation.

The economic problem in industrial housing is the old one of how much for how much. It is a matter of reducing both profit and costs. It is a phase of the problem which involves the fundamental principles of business. Housing experts have struggled with it. Many suggestions have been made, many plans have been drawn and many ideal industrial communities have been established on paper with impressive tabulation of costs and revenues. Several industries, and the number increases each year, most of them isolated from urban sources of labor supply, have carried forward housing enterprises of various kinds. And if one were to be confronted with the methods which have proven moderately successful in solving specific industrial requirements, it would seem that the problem had been solved. But in most instances in which industries have entered into industrial housing, there has been a necessary disregard of economic return and of other elements which must be considered in any practical working plan suitable for conditions of normal urban development. In short, any plan for industrial housing which disregards interest return from property investment or

involves any modification of it by acceptance of an indirect return offers us no guidance. A plan can have significance only if it recognizes all the elements of ordinary business investment.

The problem in its simplest form is how to provide homes for workers earning \$15 a week or less. I think it will be conceded that there is no serious financial difficulty in housing workers whose earning capacity is more than \$15 a week. The problem lies below that level. Disregarding, then, the intrusion of philanthropy in any form, we may begin with the man to be housed and let us accept for his earning capacity an average of \$12 a week. This is too high for some sections of the country, but it has become a fair average for New England. Because of variations in cost of land and building materials in various sections of the country, it is impossible to draw general conclusions from specific local estimates, but for our purpose let us consider the possibilities of the \$12 a week man in Bridgeport and accept Bridgeport costs as ascertained by a committee of the Chamber of Commerce in their effort to solve the housing problem of that city. It is acknowledged that the payment of 25 per cent. of the monthly income for rent is poor domestic economy. Nevertheless, statistics show that approximately 25 per cent. of the actual earnings of the head of the household is paid in rent by those whose earning capacity is within the radius that we are considering. Let us assign \$12 a month, then, for rent and consider what can be done in Bridgeport. We shall not have time to enter into variation in cost, either as to location of land or materials of construction, and the following estimates are cited only because they represent the results of an investigation by the Chamber of Commerce upon which certain conclusions have been reached.

The first plan covered a single house to be erected on a forty-foot lot, the house to contain five rooms and bath, furnace heat, gas and water. This house built of stucco on tile, or brick veneer on wood, was estimated to cost from \$2,200 to \$2,325. With interest at 5 per cent., taxes at 2 per cent., depreciation at 1 per cent., insurance and administration at 1 per cent., giving a total of 9 per cent., the required annual return from the property

must equal, on a basis of the lowest cost estimate, \$198. With the addition of a water tax of \$12 per year, the monthly cost of a house of this kind to a tenant would be \$18.35. The interest, taxes and depreciation items here introduced were not susceptible of reduction. Thus, on the basis of actual costs, it was necessary to eliminate the detached house of fire-resisting materials. The single-family house on a forty-foot lot, built of frame, according to the same plans, was estimated to cost \$2,100, which required an annual return of \$201, at a monthly cost to the tenant of \$16.75. Various plans for a single-family house were considered, and, even with the reduction of lot area, it was found necessary to eliminate it as a possibility.

Moreover, it has not seemed wise to consider the frame building as a desirable unit for an extensive housing development to be built for rental purposes. Apart from the increased fire hazard, careful analysis by competent authorities has demonstrated that the difference in depreciation between the frame house and the house of brick or tile eventually justifies the increased first cost for the better materials.

This brings us to the semi-detached house with a saving of one wall and some land. Without giving the actual figures, the reduction was not enough on the bids actually received to bring this type of house within the field which we are trying to cover. To the practical builder there is nothing new in the figures or in the computation. It is probably true that the practical builder long ago abandoned the semi-detached house of brick or tile for rental purposes at a return of \$15 or less per month.

On the two-family vertical house the reduction of cost is greater. This type of house, which is not wholly undesirable, as it furnishes light on four sides and ample yard area, can be built of frame and rented for \$15 a month and as low as \$12 a month. However, this type of house, which has been erected in large numbers in Bridgeport by speculative builders, is not susceptible of satisfactory treatment from the æsthetic or artistic standpoint and, being built of wood, it again brings us face to face with the fire hazard. Moreover, experience has shown that it is liable to rapid deterioration. It is, indeed, only

a step from the rightly condemned three-decker. It has finally been rejected by the Bridgeport Chamber of Commerce in favor of group houses—houses in rows.

The group house, to which we now turn, offers the only field of promise for low cost industrial housing in Bridgeport. To some of the gentlemen who tenaciously held to the mental picture which they retained of Bourneville and Letchworth, this has been a disappointment, and I doubt if I should be justified in making so detailed an explanation of the methods pursued in this inquiry were it not possible that a large number of us still hold to the belief that, were it not for the selfishness of the landlord and the property owner, we could, to-day, provide comfortable, sanitary, detached dwellings at a price within the reach of the humblest laboring man. Some of us may remember when this was possible, even in large industrial communities in New England. I know that to-day there are, in St. Louis, a large number of single and semi-detached brick dwellings, placed well back from the street, on a lot ample in all dimensions, which are rented for \$15 a month. Those houses were built many years ago. A St. Louis builder assured me, only last week, that it could not be done to-day.

Our problem has been to reduce costs, and we have found that the group house does offer the needed economics. There is a saving in land, in labor and in materials. By intelligent planning of group houses the family units may be so arranged that our much sought economics need not curtail light or reduce the available space for gardening and recreation. Every family is housed in a self-contained dwelling, with the living rooms on the ground floor, each with a separate entrance, which for a long time has been recognized as inevitable by builders and architects. We have demonstrated nothing new, but we have satisfied ourselves of the limitations which confront us under the local conditions which we have to meet.

The group house has been improved and developed in recent years far beyond the first type of Philadelphia house. Too few architects have given attention to it—indeed the architect is not attracted to industrial housing at all because so little is done in

an organized way; there is too little business and too small a profit. But those who have specialized in this field, through harmonious co-operation of the landscape architect and land engineer, have devised plans which must claim approval from the æsthetic and social standpoint even if they do not sweep away the financial problem which persists in different form in this type of development. For here we are concerned not with one house, but with many. Financing group dwellings involves large capital if it is to be done on an extensive scale. At present no organized means is provided in our industrial communities for bringing together the necessary elements in a development of this kind—other than private enterprise. Our rapid growth in Bridgeport has made it imperative that some properly constituted body, acting in the public interest, shall bring about the organization of a building corporation for the express purpose of meeting the demand for proper homes at moderate rentals with privileges for individual purchase and ownership, looking not for high profit, but for fair return upon a safe investment. In this direction a movement has been started by the Chamber of Commerce of Bridgeport.

Much has been said, and much has been written about the marvelous industrial growth of Bridgeport during the past year. Probably no other city in the country has had more publicity and has suffered so much from exaggeration and misstatement of fact. The facts with regard to Bridgeport's phenomenal growth are not known. So rapid has been the industrial expansion, with its resultant increase in population, that it has been impossible at any given time to obtain a cross section of the situation or to gather statistics which have not become obsolete over night. The best we can do is to refer to statistics of one year ago, when Bridgeport had a population of 115,000. It is now conservatively estimated to be 160,000, an increase of 45,000. The population a year ago consisted of less than twenty-seven per cent. native born of native parentage. More than thirty-five per cent. were foreign born and a considerably larger proportion native of foreign or mixed parentage. We

had nearly 7,000 Hungarians, who made up about twenty per cent. of the foreign-born element. There were about 5,000 Irish and 5,000 Italians, more than 4,000 Russians and more than 3,000 each from Austria and England. Germany Sweden, Servia and Poland added to the population. Newcomers represent as diverse nationalities. Bridgeport had grown rapidly for ten years prior to the outbreak of the European war. In that period its population had increased 43.7 per cent. The variety of its industries has always required great diversity in the skill of the workmen employed. It is necessary that skilled and unskilled laborers shall be able to obtain decent homes in or near the city. However, the need of providing adequate low rental accommodations for employees had never been considered by manufacturers despite the fact that building has never kept pace with the city growth. Because of consistent expansion to the east and north, Bridgeport has been singularly free from the problems of congestion concomitant with industrial growth in many other New England industrial centers. It is not surprising then that, until two years ago, Bridgeport failed entirely to recognize that in certain of the foreign sections of the city all the contributing elements to a real housing problem were beginning to take form. In 1914 a housing association was formed for the purpose of conducting a survey, and an investigation was made by Miss Udetta D. Brown. The survey showed, among the good conditions, that Bridgewater's water supply was excellent in quality and ample in quantity. There were few dwellings with dark rooms. Indeed, the city was almost free from rooms which were without direct light. Because of the prevalence of two-family houses, almost every dwelling was provided with yard or court. The survey showed that factories are not centered in the heart of the city, but many of them are built well out from the main streets. This does away with many of the difficulties of transportation which arise when all the activities of the city are grouped together. It also makes it more feasible for workers in any one factory to live comparatively near their places of employment. Among the bad conditions,

the survey showed rapid growth in some sections of the city of six, eight and ten-family tenements. Another bad feature of the housing conditions in Bridgeport was the rear house. Lots are deep, and where they cannot be developed economically for the single-family house the usual recourse has been to erect houses in the rear of the lots. This condition was partially controlled by a State law prohibiting the erection of tenements on the rear of any lot on which there was already one tenement, unless there is a yard thirty feet wide between the two, and providing that all tenements must have rear yards of ample depth. While this prohibition restricted the growth of rear tenements, it in no way affected the erection of nontenement dwellings. The worst conditions referred to in the survey related to the sewer system which has always been inadequate. The work of the housing association created a vigorous public sentiment for better housing conditions, and resulted in the adoption of a new building code which, though it failed to contain some provisions for which subsequent conditions have shown the need, nevertheless, was a great improvement over the old. The present code absolutely prohibits the further erection of three-deckers within the city limits.

This, briefly, was the condition in which Bridgeport found herself at the outbreak of the European War. Shortly thereafter the Remington Arms U. M. C. Company began the erection in Bridgeport of the largest arms plant in the world. The work of building alone brought several thousand men to the city at once. War orders and the demand for machinery and tools rapidly increased the production of all the metal-working industries of the city. Many of these have doubled their capacity in twelve months. This prosperity affected not only those industries which are engaged in the manufacture of war munitions. Every industry in Bridgeport has greatly increased its output. Within the past three months the Remington Arms plant has been completed and machinery is being installed. The pay roll of the Remington Arms Company now includes 10,000 men, which will be increased by July to 24,000 men. I shall not have time here to refer to the social conditions which have resulted

from the intrusion of from forty to fifty thousand people into a city ill-prepared to receive them. It is sufficient to say that the inability of the city to take care of this horde of newcomers has been so apparent to every citizen that bonds have been issued during the past month to the amount of two and one-quarter millions for increases in schools, parks and playgrounds, extension and paving of streets, the development of the sewer system, the increase of police and fire protection and the establishment of city clinics.

There is a certain flexibility in the housing capacity of every city, but, in attempting to house the newcomers, Bridgeport has reached the limit of its elasticity. Citizens who never before have allowed strangers in their homes are now taking in roomers. Every available shelter is utilized. Rents have increased in the poorer sections of the city from 20 to 40 per cent. Newcomers, earning more than they have ever earned before, importune landlords to evict tenants on promises of increased rent. Landlords increase the rent to the amount promised and the tenants, having no other recourse, must pay the higher rate. Some, after striving for weeks to obtain one or two rooms for their families, have become discouraged and have left the city. The result is a constant tide coming in and a lesser tide going out. This condition, so briefly described, prevailed last fall when the Chamber of Commerce determined to organize the resources of the community in an effort to solve the problem. The Housing Committee of the Chamber of Commerce has been at work since last November, trying, first, to stimulate through private enterprise; second, to increase the amount of capital available for housing purposes and to provide facilities for saving and for borrowing; third, to organize a building corporation, adequately financed, to build 500 or more workingmen's dwellings. During the winter, architectural plans were completed for single and two-family houses of several types. An option was taken on 31 acres of land on the outskirts of the city which was planned by the engineer of the City Plan Commission. An effort was made to organize a company and interest local capital in the erection of these dwellings on this land for purposes of sale, primarily

to meet the need of the higher grade of workers whose earning capacity would enable them to buy their own home. In the meantime, negotiations were entered into with private builders from New York, Washington and Philadelphia, who have profited by the plans of the committee and have now arranged for the erection of not less than 500 dwellings of the better class in the city. One realty firm has just completed twenty dwellings of the Philadelphia type. This company is placing these dwellings on rectangular plots covering approximately one-half of a city block, building eight houses in a row on one street and three houses on the adjoining street with a thirty-foot garden for each house, developing the remaining lot area into a recreation ground, title to which is to be held in common by the owners of all the dwellings in the group.

The Remington Arms Company is trying to meet the necessity of housing its own employees by the erection of several hundred dwellings of different types. Altogether the new building operations brought to the city, as shown by permits granted this spring, will provide accommodations for 10,000 people. All the houses to which I have referred, except those erected by the Remington Arms Company, are being built to sell, and it is probable that during the next year the demand for the high-grade house will be met.

But again I revert to the more urgent need of providing homes for a monthly rental of \$15 and less. Shall we rigorously hold to our first ideal of the detached dwelling or the semi-detached house, if by so doing we shall fail to provide anything for the unskilled workman? We believe that it is better to recognize that urban conditions must govern us and that we must accept group houses, holding closely, however, to the principle that each family shall be housed in a complete dwelling with living rooms on the ground floor. With this in mind plans are now being made for a series of group dwellings to be artistically placed on a rectangular area which the committee now hold on option. These dwellings are to be built in groups of four, six and eight, of brick or of tile, and will contain from four to six rooms and bath, hot and cold water, furnace heat,

electric light, direct air and light in each room and will provide a separate entrance for each family. There will be no upstairs apartments, each family having a living room and kitchen on the ground floor and the bedrooms on the second floor. Although the estimates are not all in, the architects have assured us that these houses can be rented for from \$10 to \$16 per month and pay 5 per cent. on the investment. As soon as the plans are completed the Housing Committee of the Chamber of Commerce will call upon manufacturers for the capital required. From these manufacturers assurances have already been received that there will be available for investment in a businesslike plan, a total of \$220,000. It is the intention of the committee to organize a company to sell stock in small shares. In this connection, it may be of interest to state that the president of one of the largest construction companies in the United States, who has developed an entirely new form of reinforced concrete construction in units, has suggested that the adoption of his method in the erection of large groups may bring about a considerable reduction in costs and at the same time provide a dwelling not inferior to brick or tile. He recently visited Bridgeport to acquaint himself with local costs and has consented to submit plans and estimates for the consideration of the Chamber of Commerce. This will not interfere with the plan which is now going forward, but may offer a suggestion for future housing development in the city.

From this cursory statement it is impossible to draw definite conclusions of value. Nevertheless, if there is any significance in our work it lies in the very apparent need of organized means of bringing together all the necessary elements for constructive housing in the community. In this country our municipalities cannot undertake this task, which must, for the present, be left to private enterprise or to a voluntary organization. Is it not an essential part of the program of every housing association and if so, is it not time to set a standard which others may follow? Possibly it is the kind of work which a Chamber of Commerce should do, but Chambers of Commerce have not entered this field. The Bridgeport Chamber of Commerce, facing abnormal

conditions such as I have outlined, has realized the necessity of initiative in its special case. We recognize that the work has been slow and difficult, but we are hopeful of the future and we are confident that some definite and practical building will follow from our efforts.

THE CHAIRMAN—We still have five minutes of our time. I want to emphasize again what Mr. Beemer brought out about speaking to ten people during the coming year. If you will do that, I think we can build up our organization to where it will be a State-wide power. Give us ten names, but don't stop with ten.

Tuesday, May 2, 9-11 A. M.

Child Welfare.

An interesting section on "Child Welfare" was arranged by the New Jersey Child Labor and Welfare Committee. A separate report of this meeting may be had by writing the State Charities Aid Association, 13 Central Avenue, Newark, N. J.

Legal Aspect of Dependent Children in New Jersey.

JOHN A. CULLEN, SUPERINTENDENT CATHOLIC CHILDREN'S
AID SOCIETY.

Legally defined, a dependent child is one who is destitute or one who is homeless or abandoned, or one who is a public charge. A defective, neglected or delinquent child may be a dependent child, but a dependent child in the restricted sense may not be either neglected, defective or delinquent.

When the parents are unable to support the child it becomes a dependent, if such parental inability is due to sickness, intermittent employment, industrial accident or death.

If the parental inability is due to drunkenness, shiftlessness or depravity, the child becomes a "neglected child."

If the child is put to improper uses, such as begging, working in theatres, or if parents while clothing and supporting the child exercise no control over their language, their temper or their immoral appetites, they are guilty of "improper guardianship."

In the Ten Tables of the old Roman Law we find the fourth table gave the father a right to imprison and punish, even with death, his children. Since those days the dependent child has traveled a long and hazardous journey in its pursuit of just treatment and natural rights. So it is now possible that the tendency among us has been the other extreme, and that, our courts and legislators, in making the welfare and the feelings

of the child the governing consideration, have not always considered the care, affection and help to which the parent is reciprocally entitled from the child.

The Constitution of New Jersey is silent upon family rights and relations, and we should have to regard the parental power not only as a natural right, but as a natural right above the power of the State, to declare its legislative restraint to be unconstitutional.

The State recognizes the parent's moral and legal right to the custody and control of the child, and affords every opportunity to the parent to retain that right, but our courts have declared that this parental right is not an inalienable right nor is it a vested right. In other words, parental rights are not among the personal rights safeguarded from legislative abridgement, in the "Bill of Rights" which form portions of our State Constitution.

In the Ohio case, "*House of Refuge versus Ryan*," the court declared that "the authority of the State as *parens patriæ* to assume guardianship and education of dependent and homeless children, as well as neglected orphans, is unquestioned. The institutions for public charity for this purpose in this State are a subject of just pride to every citizen. The provisions of law should receive such construction as will not defeat a humane intention.

Therefore, every child has certain rights which this State recognizes, namely: To be born right. To be loved. To have his individuality respected. To be trained wisely in body, mind and spirit. To be protected from evil persons and influences. To have a fair chance of life.

In short, the State owes the child the duty of enabling it to become a good citizen, hence its welfare is the State's first consideration, even to the extent of removing it from the parents, if the court finds it is being injured by remaining, for the reason that the State's right over a dependent child is paramount to the parents' right. But the State may, and does, insist on parental responsibility for the proper care of children, and under no circumstances does it give the father or the mother the right to relieve themselves voluntarily of this responsibility.

For many years it has been the custom of private child-caring organizations to receive from parents custody and control of their minor children in form of a voluntary release in writing, made and signed by such parent. In the case of *Leonard versus* the Catholic Children's Aid Association, in this State, Chancellor Stevens decided that such written releases were worthless because of the fact that parents had not the inherent or legal right voluntarily to relieve themselves of the natural duty they owe their children. The State alone, through its courts, has the power to relieve parents of such duties and responsibilities, and this power is never exercised except for cause, such as when it is found that they are wholly unfit for the office of education or when they have been neglectful or cruel. When parents have abandoned a child they are entitled to a hearing, but not a jury trial, since the proceeding is not a criminal one.

The State, by virtue of its police powers, has gone even further and asserted its right to control the means and the methods of caring for and educating children, as evidenced by our very excellent child labor laws and our compulsory education law.

In the case of the State of Ohio *versus* Quigley, the validity of the compulsory law was tested and the constitutionality declared sound. This is at present a leading case on the subject. The question was brought up in 1890 by the Director of Compulsory Education on a refusal of Archbishop Quigley to give a list of the pupils in his parish school to the truant officer. The issue was the constitutionality of the Compulsory Education Law.

The court further exercises this right by authorizing its officers to inspect, control and regulate conditions under which the children work in factories, etc., irrespective of whether they are dependents or otherwise. But dependent children, by reason of their helplessness and destitution, are more particularly the State's wards, and, as such, it is more essentially the State's right and duty to protect such children; inspect, control and regulate the nature, adequacy and efficiency of all institutions, private and public, whose board of managers take it upon themselves to care for these children. Summarized:

(1) The State's right over the children is paramount to the parents' right.

(2) The State, through its court, may remove children permanently from the parents for cause.

(3) The Legislature may pass and enforce laws providing for the proper care of children, whether they be in the custody of parents, guardians or corporations.

(4) The State owes to the child the duty of care and protection.

(5) A parent has no legal authority or power voluntarily to surrender the control or responsibility of a dependent child.

Flowing from this legal relation of the State to the dependent child are certain well recognized duties. It is of interest to examine into what the State of New Jersey has done to acquit itself properly of these duties.

It may be said that the State as such makes no direct financial provision for the care of dependents, other than such dependents as are defective, such as the deaf and dumb, insane and blind, and for other dependent children the State delegates its authority to county and municipal corporations and to private societies. It even goes further in that it permits any person whatsoever to step in and take over the duty of caring for dependent children.

In this regard the State has improved but little upon the old Poor Law method, transplanted into this country originally from England. This system provided for public care locally administered and expressed itself in two types, namely: The Virginian or County type and the New England or Town type, to square up with the forms of local government then in operation in those two districts.

In New Jersey both types are present; that is, we have eleven counties administering poor relief through its county officers, in the remaining ten counties the municipal type of administering financial aid is being adhered to.

In all cases where circumstances make a child a dependent, the overseer of the poor in his district is the officer legally charged with the duty of investigating and determining whether

or not the child is to be made a financial charge on the city, the borough, town or the county, as the case may be.

If the overseer happens to have his district in a county where the freeholders of that county assume financial responsibility for poor relief purposes, the overseer has seldom any pressing reason why he should not commit the child to the county almshouse, since in that case his particular district will not be charged directly with the burden of the child's support. Obversely, if the overseer is living in a county where the municipal type of financial responsibility has been adopted, he, the overseer, is never anxious to commit a child as a public charge, and generally makes use of every means that his fertile brain can devise to save his locality from assuming any financial responsibility.

He first tests the residence clause in the Poor Law; if that fails to meet his conception of a reason for a refusal to commit he may find that his locality provides no appropriation for the care of the dependent child; that reason again failing, he often-times falls back on private child-saving organizations to assume the custodial care and responsibility and thus relieve his district of a legal financial burden.

This old Poor Law system of providing for dependent children has not been changed since the Revolution, except in that provision was made by a law passed in 1899 prohibiting overseers from keeping children in an almshouse longer than thirty days and establishing a State Board of Children's Guardians to remove such children from almshouses and provide for their care at local expense.

This law, without doubt, has been one of the greatest measures ever passed by the State in recognition of the duty it owed to helpless and dependent children.

The law, of course, is not a perfect one, and has its limitations. In its operation it might be termed passive, inasmuch as it can only be called into operation by a commitment of a child by an overseer of the poor to an almshouse.

In the interpretation of that law it seems that a dependent child does not become a State ward and eligible for public relief until such commitment is made and the child's name actually written on the almshouse register.

This law does not enable the State Board of Children's Guardians to compel the overseer to commit, but leaves him free to exercise his functions of thrift and discretion under the old system inherited from Colonial days. On this discretion of the overseer of whether he will *or he will not* commit a child to an almshouse rests the cardinal reason for the existence of so many private orphanages and placing-out societies.

At present New Jersey has about 380 overseers of the poor, representing as many political subdivisions of the State.

These overseers are responsible only to the local boards for what they do. To these boards they are expected to prepare and present annual statements. There is no State or central authority to which all overseers might be expected to report on their work, and consequently there is no means whereby a general official comparison of their methods and expenditures may be had. Until such a regulation is secured it will be difficult to classify and standardize methods of relief or arrive at any sure conception whether the dependent child receives its rightful share of the taxpayers' money.

The necessity of State supervision of overseers' methods and expenditures has become an economic desirability, and a law authorizing such purpose is one of our first needs.

We want badly some material evidence to enlighten us to the real reason why we need to-day in New Jersey sixty-one orphan asylums, crowded with dependent or partially dependent children; why we have sixteen Children's Aid Societies; and what is the basic reason for their existence and for their continued voluntary support by the public.

In the old days when the almshouse was the only public provision in existence for the destitute child, a reason for voluntary private care was a necessity. But at present we find that because of enlightened public opinion many of the props supporting that contention have been eliminated by:

(1) Act establishing a State Board of Children's Guardians.

(2) Act establishing the Juvenile Court, both of which are an evolution, the result of many years of ineffective adverse experience in dealing with dependent children.

(3) The Widows' Pension Law, which in itself is but a crystallization of the general belief of all enlightened people that the preservation of the family unit, intact and inseparable, is the cornerstone of American citizenship.

Each of these laws was built on the people's conception and recognition of the value of the child to the community, as well as his value to himself. Further, these laws are a registration of a confession that the State owes a duty to its dependent children and that it is struggling gradually to equip itself to perform that duty.

All laws for child betterment are the result of gradual evolution of sentiment of the people, and as the Constitution says all political power is inherent in the people, it follows that in order to improve present conditions surrounding dependent children, public knowledge of such conditions is imperative.

New Jersey has not a clean slate on which to write model laws to meet the wants of dependent children of to-day. If such were the case, few of us doubt but that the people would write thereon a child's real Bill of Rights.

Instead, the statute book is already cluttered with an aggregation of patched-over laws that make for divided responsibility and delegated authority to small political units, each interpreting its duties, independently of the other, resulting in inadequacy of provision and inefficiency of administration.

Voluntary organizations as a consequence were from the very weakness of the provision encouraged by public sentiment to take a hand.

That is one of the main reasons why at present we have engrafted on the State as supplementary provision our privately-supported orphan asylums and Children's Aid Societies, housing probably 5,000 dependent children.

Some of these institutions are good, some indifferent; like the overseers, there is no central authority to which they are responsible for the child's care, nor is there any uniform standard whereby the child may receive that kind of care that the State owes him.

Still the stubborn fact remains that these private institutions

exist and have been in existence at the price of considerable public sacrifice from time immemorial. They have increased with the population and show no signs of abating, which fact affords proof positive that there are real reasons for their presence, which I might attempt to enumerate as follows:

(1) Inadequacy of public provision.

(2) Disinclination of many people to accept for children Poor Law provision, believing it carried with it a stigma.

(3) Absence of legislative provision for the moral and religious training of the child in its own faith, prior to the establishing of the State Board of Children's Guardians.

(4) Desire of relatives to make part payments for the board of children under auspices that appeal to their sense of fitness.

Due credit must be given to the contentions of those pioneers of private provision, as they have been willing to back their opinion by sacrifice of energy and money, and in any reformatory program that the Legislature might possibly contemplate for bettering the condition of dependent children, fair consideration will have to be given the value of the voluntary element in child-care, which has found expression in corporate bodies, not for pecuniary profit.

The factors of strength, in such organizations that particularly demand recognition and study, might be classified as follows:

(1) The value of the private real estate used in housing and caring for children.

(2) The amount of voluntary contributions received annually for support.

(3) The value of endowments which partly support some private institutions and entirely support others.

(4) The educational and moral value, which flows as a consequent result of their efforts to obtain voluntary support. Every appeal for funds is backed by an advertisement of conditions that require a remedy. The futility of indiscriminate giving is emphasized and public attention is focused on the hardships that children suffer by the very fact that the appeal touches the pocketbook. It may be also mentioned that a great many of

the legislative measures for child improvement have their origin in private initiative.

The weakness of private effort might be summarized as follows:

(1) Duplication of energy and decentralization of responsibility.

(2) Loss of time in securing financial aid.

(3) Time of executive meetings taken up discussing the economic problem, instead of considering ways and means to better the child.

(4) Temptation of boards of managers to relieve their burden at the taxpayers' expense, either by way of contract for boarding children or by way of a general subsidy as part support of the institution.

(5) Stagnation and atrophy of educative functions arising from endowments, sufficiently ample to make them independent of appeal for general support.

(6) Indiscriminate admission of children to orphanages without investigation and the unnecessary extension of confinement beyond the period of family distress that necessitated the admission.

Some of these private child-caring organizations have charters of incorporation antedating our amended Constitution of 1875, and as such are inviolable in so far as the contract principle cannot be impaired even by the State, as laid down in the famous Dartmouth College case.

Fortunately, our amended Constitution of 1875 has legislated the private charter out of existence and provided for the granting of certificates of incorporation under a general law.

And this brings me to the third and last principal difficulty that makes for confusion in and indecision in the administration of the statute law relating to children.

Various have been the complaints of laymen and lawyers as to the proper law to apply to certain cases where the child's welfare is concerned, and not without reason. For this condition private child-welfare bodies have been largely to blame. In their individual efforts to procure legislation to strengthen

and give legal authority to their activities, laws were passed to suit their particular needs and their particular districts of such a special and local character as to assume all the earmarks of special legislation, and as such unconstitutional.

Amendment clauses were introduced in every conceivable way without due regard to the new relation to other portions of the law created by such amendment.

In some cases enactment has been piled upon enactment where nothing is in terms repealed, but where a later law plainly repeals in part the prior law by constitution, it plainly does not repeal the whole, yet where the repeal begins and where it ends it is hard to tell. Some lawyers believe, for instance, that the Poor Law of 1911 clearly repeals the prior law of 1874, while others are of the opinion that such a construction is not apparent, and so on with many others.

Oftentimes machinery for the enforcement of a statute is not provided and amendments are passed entirely overlooking other amendments to the same statute; and sometimes laws were amended that were no longer in force, having been repealed before. For many years justices of the peace and police judges have been trying cases of parents charged with cruelty and neglect of children and committing them to jail under a State law that registered such an offense a misdemeanor, and as such, some lawyers believe, belonged to the jurisdiction of the county court in spite of the clause giving the peace justice authority. (It will be noticed that the new child-welfare law avoids the word misdemeanor in its provisions.)

Other enactments stand on the statute books, as a result of the work of interested county and private corporations, which weaken the provision of the State Board of Children's Guardians Act, by giving such corporations concurrent jurisdiction with the said board for the care of dependent children.

I have purposely mentioned these matters to indicate the difficulties the State will have to meet when the time comes to write into the laws a "children's charter" embodying the duties and responsibilities which the State owes to its dependent children.

At various times an attempt has been made by lawyers interested in child-welfare to assemble, revise and codify the various laws of the statute book relating to minors, but the more deeply they have gone into the subject the more evident did the difficulty of codification present itself, for the reason that the Constitution of the State in one of its provisions restricting the powers of the Legislature embodies the following restraint:

"No bill shall contain more than one subject, which shall be clearly expressed in the title."

The purpose of this restriction is to give notice of attempted legislation to the legislators and the public, as well as to prevent log-rolling, as when various incongruous provisions are united to be carried through under a sort of compromise. It also prevents the saddling of a bill with provisions not germane to it. Most States have such restriction in their constitutions as the foregoing, but some of them have made special exceptions to this limitation in the case of appropriation and codification bills. Our Constitution has made no such exceptions.

In States in which all the statutes have been reduced to a code—as in New York State, which amended its Constitution in 1846 for this purpose—logical arrangement in revision, or, amendments of a general law, could in the title be referred to its proper place in the code, or revised statutes. This would be notice to legislators.

In this State there are so many laws referred to child-welfare that any codification of them that would stand a constitutional test would require some wonderful ingenuity of phrasing. It might be possible, but those who have studied the matter have been discouraged. Our recent child-welfare law is the nearest approach to what we require, within possible and practical limits, warranted by presented conditions.

To sum up, I believe we are agreed that:

1. The dependent child is a special ward of the State, and as such entitled to its special protection and care.
2. The State, by reason of its having originally delegated parental functions to various local political units and private

organizations, has failed to provide the necessary safeguards insuring a uniform or a minimum standard of care.

3. That the present patched and varicolored condition of our statute laws relating to dependents, oppose a serious obstacle to any up-to-date, enlightened legislation that might be contemplated.

The remedies which I believe are practical and which would make for general improvement are as follows:

1. The financial responsibility now resting on townships, boroughs, towns and cities in ten counties of this State should be assumed by the county, and that a campaign of education towards that end should be inaugurated.

2. That all counties should be obliged to adhere strictly to the State law by transferring dependent children to the care of the State Board of Children's Guardians, instead of to private child-caring corporations whose operations are not subject to legal restrictions either as to the child's physical well-being or to its religious inheritance.

3. That the Commissioner of Charities should be legally empowered to exact from all overseers of the poor complete annual reports as to their activities relating to the care of dependent children, and that the said commissioner be given authority to inspect periodically and standardize the work of such overseer.

4. That in the meanwhile a law should be passed making it mandatory for the Commissioner of Charities to inspect all private institutions in which municipal or county authorities place dependent children at public expense, and that all placing out of such children should be done by the State Board of Children's Guardians, and not by such private institutions.

I have intentionally emphasized the State supervision in the two preceding paragraphs, as the State under these circumstances owes the taxpayers a double duty, namely, to see that the dependent child gets a square deal and that the public money inuring for that purpose is wisely expended.

For other voluntary child-caring corporations the present new permissive law providing for inspection and endorsement should be tested out before extending the provisions further.

New Jersey, as compared with other States, is not the most progressive in its provision for dependent children. This may be due to the fact that this particular class of children, as distinguished from others, is not a danger to property or health, for poverty is their only affliction, and sometimes it is not even an affliction. For, as a French writer has said, "Poverty is that wonderful and terrible trial from which the feeble come out famous, and the strong come out sublime, the crucible in which Destiny casts a man whenever she desires a scoundrel or a demigod."

The dependent child does not need institutional discipline, because he is not a delinquent or a criminal; nor is it necessary to segregate him, since he is not a defective. His wants are the wants of a normal, healthy child, friendless and destitute, and as such asks of the State as *paren patria* an opportunity to live under conditions that afford a fair prospect of development into clean manhood. A State that denies him this denies itself one of the best dividend-paying investments.

ROBERT L. FLEMMING, JERSEY CITY.

The present child-caring laws of New Jersey are far more complete than most people appreciate. The great trouble is not in the laws, but in the enforcement of the laws, and it is impossible to enforce a law until you teach a community the necessity for that law and the advantages of its enforcement. I think that Mr. C. C. Carstens, of Boston, has placed the true value on the New Jersey child-caring laws in his report to the Baltimore Convention, namely, that they can be used as a model for the rest of the country, especially in view of the fact that when that report was made he did not have before him the "Child-Welfare" law, which covers most of the omissions he points out in the New Jersey laws. The State Board of Guardians has, for instance, not only provided for the care of the dependent children committed to its care, but the law under which it acts also provides: "Said Board of Children's Guardians shall have the care of and maintain a general supervision

over all indigent, helpless, dependent, abandoned, friendless and poor children who may now be or who may hereafter become public charges; and said board shall have the care of and maintain supervision over all children adjudged public charges who may now be in the charge, custody and control of any county asylum, county home, almshouse, poorhouse, charitable institution, home or family to which said child or children may be or have been committed, confined, adopted, apprenticed, indentured or bound out."

Another provision is: "The State Board of Children's Guardians shall remain the guardians of all children indentured, bound out or put forth, who may now be or may hereafter become public charges." Thus it is apparent that the State Board of Guardians has the legal power to supervise all dependent children and is their guardian, although I do not know of an instance in which a court of the State has, recognizing this provision of the law, notified the New Jersey State Board of Guardians and made it a party to the adoption of a dependent child who has been in the custody of a private society. If our judges are so delinquent, is it to be wondered at that so few laymen are aware of the provisions of the child-caring laws?

In our civilization the family is the unit. If we are to raise the standard of our State we must raise the standard of family life. New Jersey now recognizes this. Formerly the individual was considered as the unit, with the natural result that the orphan asylum was accepted as the proper solution of the "Child Problem." To-day we appreciate that the old-style orphan asylums have failed. The theory that the character and morals of a child are inherited from its parents has not been proved. I think I am justified in saying that the child's character and morals are formed and controlled almost exclusively by its surroundings. We must, therefore, if we are to succeed in raising a higher civilization in our State, raise the standard of the home. It is necessary, therefore, if our "Children's Laws" are to be a success, to work not with the individual child, but with the home, and no law for the protection of children can be suc-

cessful that does not give the child a normal home life. The State Board of Children's Guardians law is founded on this theory, and the results accomplished by it are almost beyond belief. Only one child in the care of the State Board of Children's Guardians was arraigned before the court during the two years last past, a feeble-minded girl who was arrested for shoplifting. She was discharged and sent to Vineland.

Any system that is to be effective in meeting the "Child Problem" must include:

1. State care and supervision of all dependent and delinquent children.

2. State supervision of private child-caring societies, so that they may all reach a standard to be fixed by the State.

3. Abolishment of the old-style orphan asylum and the placing of the child inmates in private families, under constant supervision.

4. The placing of the parents of the children under probation to secure new and proper homes so that the children can be returned to them with a fair chance in life. Certain of the orphan asylums might well be used for the care of defective and diseased children, especially those infected with the "family diseases," who are uncared for at present. Others of the orphan asylums to be used as temporary shelter for children while their parents are being forced by the State to provide a proper home for them.

5. Enlargement of the work of the Juvenile Court of the counties of the first class and their strengthening so that they may have the power to punish the parents of the children and power to force such parents to provide new and proper homes for the children, the parents to be held on probation until they obey the order of the court.

6. Thorough reorganization of our public school system so that the child's education shall fit it to become a bread-winner or trained housekeeper.

Most of this program could be put in force to-day if the child-caring societies would give their consent. There would be no trouble in carrying out the rest of the program or accomplish-

ing any other reforms that may be necessary, for the combined effort of all child-caring societies of the State would be an irresistible force.

I am glad to say that the Legislature of the State of New Jersey has been willing to pass any law necessary for the protection of children. Is it not the duty of the child-caring societies to do their part of joining forces and creating a unified system so that as far as possible all the children of the State may be assured a fair chance in life?

Why Are Children in Orphan Asylums?

MISS A. J. SUTPHEN, MEMBER OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES, NEWARK ORPHAN ASYLUM.

Undoubtedly the main reason that children are in orphan asylums and other kindred institutions is that dependent children have been cared for in that way in our cities for the last seventy-five years. We have had the institutions and the people have been trained to support them, and those interested in dependent children have turned to them for a solution of their difficulties. Public opinion has adjusted itself to them.

For the last few years there has been a growing sentiment for the "Every Homeless Child in a Family Home" slogan, and in some cities this has been brought to pass most successfully. For the rest of us this change is coming more slowly and must of necessity be a matter of education and development. The institution itself is steadily changing and adapting itself to the changing conditions in the changing life about it and the attitude of the public, supporter and supported, will also change. No board of managers is proud of a complete standstill in its policy in any line of work in these days of progressive thought.

It is not altogether because "groups of people want to identify themselves with some tangible scheme" that the institution has not shut its doors, for it will still be needed during the readjusting scheme, and may adjust to a very real need in the child-welfare movement. The institution is already in existence and

the children are already in it being cared for with more and more thought for the individual child. The change will come and is coming in the conditions of admission to the homes. The class of children is already different. We are the Emergency Hospital that opens its doors to those in need and tides them over a hard time. The ideal of the institution to-day is not to make a permanent home for the child, but to make a home for him till his family can be reconstructed after some collapse has temporarily thrown it out of adjustment. Besides this we "clean up" the neglected child and prepare him for a higher type of family home.

It is by no means a new thing for the institutions to place the children in free homes, either for adoption or, when they are old enough to render service, to assist in the home or on farms. And this has by no means always been the unsupervised placing which has brought the volunteer such scathing criticism by its abuses. Many of the children who have gone out from the homes have had just cause to bless their whole relation with them and the governing staff, a fact frequently brought to my attention by our alumni.

We discovered some time since that a number of our Italian cases referred to us as the college, and were thoroughly proud to have graduated there. It is not that spirit that I have in mind, but the long list of young men and young women who to-day give credit to the home and the principles instilled in them there for their success in life. In my four years' association with the work of the Admission Committee I think there are not more than three cases of those brought to my attention who have turned out badly, and one of those was deficient. While I am frequently brought in contact with the happier product.

The children in orphan asylums are always there, naturally, through the failure of the parents properly to protect and support them. In my experience this has not been due to alcohol and immorality as much as to misfortune and inefficiency. We deal with four classes of dependent orphans: the full orphan, the fatherless, the motherless and the illegitimate, orphaned more than any.

The full orphan is one of the easiest problems of any child-welfare society. If he has relatives able to take him in the family it is not difficult to persuade them so to do. If he is alone, he is the one those are looking for who want to adopt a child, so that they will not be in perpetual fear that someone will interfere with their right to him. My predecessor told me that she had a hundred applications for every full orphan who was normal. Those who are not up to par stay on till they are given a chance to respond to nourishment and regular living. Then they, too, move on. The average stay of a child in our home is two and a half years, an average which is made higher because we are keeping one family of four together there and sending the oldest girl to the public industrial school, so that she may fulfill her ideal of making a home for her father and elder brother. She is in a fair way to succeed in this, and in the meantime the youngest is being healed of a physical weakness by the constant treatment for his trouble. Besides this the average includes a girl who has developed so well under the care of an "understanding friend" in the person of the matron and is waiting now for the advantage of the summer in the country before she enters for a nurse's training in the fall.

The child without a *father* represents the majority of our dependents. He becomes dependent through the inability of the mother to cope with the struggle to maintain the home with its main support gone. Where there are no relatives ready to step in the breach and hold the home together she has to go out to work at a wage hardly adequate to properly maintain the home, more often the children are too small to let her do even that, and often she is one of the inefficient. Failing to get along without help she gets aid from church, charities or the pension. Sometimes she weathers it for quite a time until ill luck or slack work saps her courage and makes her turn to the dreaded separation from her children. The family boarding home, if known to her, takes more than she is able to pay, and she turns to the larger home where the expense is adjusted to her ability to pay. The very segregation which can lead to the

abuses in an institution makes a strong appeal to her as a safe shelter for them until she is able to take them back to her re-established home. Some of these mothers are out at service, or are in factories or at day's work. In many cases both the widowed mothers and fathers are keeping a home with the older children or are boarding them in family homes.

The children without a mother make the other large group of our dependent children. In many cases a home of comfort becomes the most pitiable wreck after the death of the mother who has made it. The housekeepers available in such an emergency who really meet the situation are pitifully few and far between, and the story of a broken home, and often a broken man, is the too frequent sequel. Sometimes he is able to farm his children around with his friends and relatives, but when the first sympathetic interest is over and the cares the children bring with them manifest themselves his troubles begin, and many a father has counted himself happy to bring his children together again in our safe harbor. In almost every case the man has been unable to pay for the full support of each child.

From the point of view of the interested adult, then, the orphan asylum meets their need. Their very need opens the door for their children at the price they are able to pay, and the very character of the large organization establishes a confidence in the safekeeping of the child without alienation of his affection or a fear of expulsion through further adversity.

From the viewpoint of the child, then, does the institution rob him of his rights? I think not, as institutions are conducted to-day and as they are continually changing to meet the requirements from within and without. Some of the institutions in Newark have both a summer home and winter home. Our children are turned loose in a most attractive country home for six months of the year with their own gardens, a swimming pool in the good-sized lake they row on, farm animals and fruit trees and everything that goes to make the country a happy place, and *no* confining fences. In the city this long country outing interferes with the public schooling of all but the five oldest children, who are in the evening high

school, so a private school is maintained both in the city and in the country. Last year a Boy Scout leader was sent to Westfield several times a week and took the boys on hikes and established the "good-turn-a-day" code. In the city a complete playground equipment has been set up and the Guild sends a playground teacher in the spring months. Indoors the children have more and more individual care given to their different temperaments. The older girls get some domestic training and useful sewing. In the infirmary, running ears and such physical defects are persistently treated and cured where possible. Altogether the child in the home is far from being the pitiable object fancy often pictures him.

When a highly organized central system of beneficence can be developed, the welfare plan for Newark will probably include one institution, a combination of those now existing in which those children classed as the less desirable can be cared for in a cottage colony, with provisions for special educational training, hand work in its many forms in both industrial and vocational training, economic training and moral training. Behind all these, of course, must be built up a splendid physical training to develop the strong body as a basis. With such an aid to the development of the children suffering from neglect, and every desirable child placed in a family home with the help of his own people and the "friendly organization," surely the dream we all have in the background of our mind at least will be realized and every child will have a chance to come into his own.

Problems of Institutional Care.

CHARLES C. RUBENS, SUPERINTENDENT HEBREW ORPHAN
ASYLUM, NEWARK.

The subject assigned to me is so broad in its scope, including almost anything and everything related to the internal affairs of an institution, that in treating it I found it necessary to be both brief and discriminating. The problems being so many, I have selected only six which to my mind seemed most im-

portant, and this number I have merely touched upon in order to bring my presentation within the time allowed. I have endeavored throughout to draw on my personal experience, as these problems were handled in the Newark institution which it is my privilege to represent.

I shall enumerate at once the problems of institutional care which I have selected for discussion:

1. How can we maintain a proper standard of health among the children in the institution?
2. How shall we give our children the education which fits for life?
3. By what means can the institution furnish its wards with a proper social life and wholesome recreation?
4. The problem of discipline; how shall we approach it?
5. How can we preserve the right relationship between the children and their relatives, so that the two should not become estranged?
6. The problem of "After Care," *i. e.*, how shall the children be followed up after they leave the institution?

I think you will agree with me that if I have not succeeded in naming the most important problems of institution care, that I have at least named very perplexing and trying questions which demand a solution in every institution for the care of children.

First, then, is the problem of health. My personal experience in the Hebrew Orphan Asylum of Newark during the first winter of my administration was very trying. We had two epidemics, diphtheria and mumps, besides minor cases of sickness day after day. True, there was nothing very unusual in this experience; it can be expected wherever children are housed in large number; but we looked upon it quite seriously, and we sought for causes. The following are some of the preventive measures we undertook: The building was repainted from basement to roof. Individual steel lockers replaced the old wooden closets used for the children's wearing apparel. A magnificent outdoor playhouse was built and the children were taken out of the dingy basement playrooms. The windows were

kept open at all times, and the children impressed with the importance of fresh air and outdoor life. Last, but not least, the menu was enriched so that the children received the proper nourishment. I must add that we had very excellent medical attention and isolation facilities. What was the outcome of all these precautions? Three years have elapsed since that dismal winter and our health record for this period is remarkable. During the past winter, when Newark experienced two epidemics of great severity—grippe and measles—not one of our children was afflicted. Indeed, even our physicians are very agreeably surprised with this fortunate state of our health. In short, then, the problem of how to maintain good health among the children in an institution resolves itself into giving them a clean, sanitary environment, plenty of fresh air, proper nourishment, and last, but not least, good medical care and adequate hospital and dispensary facilities.

The second problem to be considered is that of education. How shall we fit the institution child to take his place in life on equal terms with his more fortunate brother who has been reared in a good private home? At the very outset we are confronted with the question as to whether the institution shall send its wards to the public school on the outside or whether it shall have a school of its own within the building. We have preferred the public school for the following reasons: The institution should have within its walls as much of the home-like atmosphere as possible. It should be a large household, and not a school. If the children leave the building daily for the outside school the institution will more nearly resemble the normal home. Moreover, by taking the children away from their institutional surroundings for several hours daily, and giving them a new environment among teachers and pupils who come from private homes, the institutional monotony is broken up, and they have an opportunity to rub shoulders with different classes of children and thus gain added confidence in themselves, together with the broad-mindedness which will come from a wider field of experience. Again, there is no question that the institution, with its limited means, cannot hope to

compete with our great public school system, where so much money is expended, where the best of teachers are secured on account of the inducements offered, and where the classes are so well graded with their excellent curricula. Last, but not least, we must remember that the institutional workers are quite human and require rest from their daily duties. This they can have during the hours that the children spend in school.

But is the public school education sufficient to fit the institution child for life? I do not think so. The institution can supplement this training in many ways. To begin with, the public school cannot necessarily concern itself with religion. Here, then, we have a great opportunity to develop character by means of religious instruction in the institution. Moreover, the institution, through its varied domestic activities, can find many opportunities for practical training. The kitchen, the dining-room, the laundry, the sewing and linen rooms, the dormitories and the hospital are some of the departments where the girls can acquire very necessary knowledge. The boys, too, can gain practical experience, as they do in our own institution, by assisting with the painting, repair work, office duties, the general cleaning, and above all the institution's farm. Some of our larger institutions having the means at their disposal have gone a step further along the lines of vocational guidance by instituting such courses as typewriting and stenography, millinery, dressmaking, telegraphy, printing and woodwork. In our own institution we send all deserving wards to the high schools. Thus, you see, that given the means, the opportunities for education in the institution are unlimited. The institutional graduate can be, and is often, remarkably well equipped for life.

We now come to our third problem, viz.: By what means can the institution furnish its wards with a proper social life and wholesome recreation? The very root of this problem lies in the proper relationship between institution workers and the children in their charge. We stand to them in the place of their parents, and if we endeavor to show for them fatherly and motherly concern, being sympathetic with them to the smallest details, we cannot fail to win their confidence, respect and affec-

tion. The trouble is that the institutional worker often looks upon himself as a disciplinarian, directing by signals and ruling through fear. Naturally, the children under these circumstances become suspicious of their guardians and fail to confide in them or trust them. If we desire to create a homelike atmosphere in the institution the children should be brought up to look upon their superiors as their friends who are eager to assist them in every way.

Of course we have many means of promoting social life among the children. Social and literary clubs should be organized and an effort made to induce young men and young women from the outside to lead these clubs. Personally, I have found such clubs of the greatest assistance. The children look forward to their meetings most eagerly. I have in mind one club in our institution who meet every Friday evening under the leadership of the resident lady workers of the institution. For two hours these girls play games, chat on anything and everything of interest to them, and then refreshments are served. The official relationship is entirely forgotten here. The girls learn to love the ladies who take these opportunities to explain matters of greatest concern to them, and which girls of the adolescent period should understand.

Besides having these club meetings, there are many other ways of promoting social life, viz., birthday parties, theatricals, lectures, entertainments, outings to places of interest and amusement. Very important is the proper mingling of the sexes at play and in the house, particularly by having the classmates seated together in the dining-room at small tables.

Hand in hand with the social life of the children come their play and recreation. Children must play in order to develop fully physically, mentally and morally. Above all, the institution requires playground facilities. The boys must have a baseball field. The girls must have space for their particular games. But there must also be a playhouse for inclement weather—a playhouse with windows all around, to admit fresh air and sunshine, and one provided with plenty of toys, games and gymnastic apparatus. Given these facilities, your problem of

discipline, to which we now come, must become simplified. Keep the children busy in the proper channels; give them the right opportunity for giving vent to their energies through play and exercising, and the mischievous boy or girl will suddenly become transformed.

In handling the problem of discipline, I have three working principles always before me:

1. Make as few rules as possible.
2. Do not look for trouble.
3. Good example for superiors is most important, for children are great mimics.

First, then, make as few rules as possible. The more rules made the more chances there are for children to be disobedient. Place as few restraints on the children as is consistent with good order in the institution. But good order does not mean military precision and deathlike stillness. This is repression and should not be permitted. When children are obedient, respectful and truthful, they are orderly. I have as little line formation as possible and absolutely no marching. The children have sufficient military training and severe discipline at school. The children should be directed by conversational methods and not by bell signals. Common-sense methods will make them more human and less machine-like.

My second principle is not to look for trouble. You who deal with children know too well that it is necessary to close your eyes very often and not see too much. The beginner does see too much, and the result is disastrous for both himself and the children. Suppose the youngster does forget himself at times, so do we grownups, and we do not feel that we deserve punishment.

We all know how necessary it is to set the right example before children. The quiet and dignified institutional workers, the genuine ladies and gentlemen, are the ones who bring out the best in the children. The worst thing in discipline is to lose your self-control and become enraged before children. You never get anywhere with such methods.

But you will say, there is certainly a problem of discipline in the institution. Given the best of environment, workers and

methods, you will find children need correction and punishment. Yes, you are right. In the best of families, too, children require to be corrected and punished at times. What methods of punishment are open and legitimate? Reasoning and reprimanding should be used for first offenses. When a child persists, then deprivation of privilege should follow. If these methods are not effective, isolation, keeping the offender away from the others in some room where he can have time and opportunity to reflect, will generally bring him to his senses. I am not prepared to say that corporal punishment should be abolished, but I am convinced that no other form of punishment makes the children so resentful and bitter, and the less it is used the better for both the children and their superiors. Above all we should remember that punishment should not be administered in a spirit of revenge or "getting even," but for the moral improvement of the child. It would be well to ask yourself, "How would I punish the child if he were my own?"

How can we preserve the intimate relationship between the children and their dear ones though separated in some cases for many years? We must remember that the great majority of the children in institutions are only half orphans and have relatives with whom they will and should live after they leave the institution. You know that one criticism often made of institutions is that the children are estranged from their relatives, even from the surviving parent, and many are the heart-aches suffered in consequence. How shall we overcome this condition and preserve the right relation between the children and their blood relations? The solution to this problem lies in the hands of the institutional authorities. From the day that the child is admitted until the time that he leaves the institution, and indeed for some time after that, the superintendent and his or her coworkers must be on their guard. To begin with, the first meeting between the superintendent and the child and his relatives is very important. The child should be made to understand that the institution will merely tide over a certain period of need, that it will be only his temporary home, that the relatives are, and will always remain, his natural protectors

and best friends. There should be frequent visiting days. The relatives should be in constant touch with their children in matters of progress at school and behavior at home. This can be done by conferences between relatives and the superintendent. Personally, I take every opportunity to lecture the children on filial duties, and to imbue them with the idea that it will be their duty and privilege to assist their dear ones after they leave the institution. The difficulty generally comes when the institutional graduate realizes the gap that often exists between him and his relatives in education and mode of living. I have several times been instrumental in making a family move to more desirable quarters for the sake of the children, who have been accustomed to a clean and healthful environment in the institution. As for the educational gap, the only way this can be overcome is to make the children understand that the same opportunities were not offered to their dear ones and that the fault is not theirs.

We come to the last problem to be considered, the problem of "after-care." The children generally leave the institution after the age of fourteen—a most critical period in their lives. All the good work the institution may have accomplished during the years of endeavor may be in vain if the child is permitted to shift for himself after he leaves the institution. It is just at this time that he needs guidance. How should we give it to him? In our own home we generally give the child a start by keeping him in the institution for several months after he has obtained a position. During these months, aside from the money he saves, we are able to explain the new experiences he is gaining while at work, and so adaptation to the new environment takes place while he is still with us in the institution. During these months we begin thinking about the home we shall send him to, and it is selected and prepared for him. After the child leaves us he is encouraged to visit us frequently and to join the alumni association. Besides this, he is visited either by the superintendent or by a committee of ladies appointed for the purpose.

Many other methods of after-care have been pursued in vari-

ous institutions. Every child leaving a certain Philadelphia orphanage is taken in charge by a particular director, who assumes the leadership of a big brother. Some of the larger institutions have paid workers engaged for this follow-up work. It is recognized that the institution has a problem to face after the child leaves the home, and those organizations that have not yet given this matter attention are not performing their entire duty to their children.

Our State Wards.

MISS FRANCES DAY, GENERAL AGENT OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

First, let me tell you what the State Board of Children's Guardians is. So many people think that we are an institution or a society maintaining a home for the care of children. We have no institution. The board consists of seven members, appointed by the Governor, two of whom are women. The office, and field staff consists of twenty-nine employees, all women. The field workers' duties are to investigate new family homes for children, visit children in the families and investigate the history of cases, and petitions for relief under an "Act to Promote Home Life for Dependent Children."

Any child who is fortunate enough to be committed as a State ward has a better start in life than many children in their own homes. When a child is committed to an almshouse it immediately becomes a ward of the State. It is given a thorough medical inspection by our physicians. This inspection shows any physical or mental defects of the child. If the child is feeble-minded, application is made for its admission to the proper institution for the care of such children. If it needs treatment for orthopædic diseases it is placed in a hospital for the treatment of such diseases where we have the very best surgeons to care for it. If the child needs an operation for the removal of enlarged tonsils or adenoids, it is placed in a hospital for the operation. If he needs the attention of an eye or ear specialist, he is given whatever treatment is neces-

sary by one of the best specialists in our city. A great deal of attention is given to the care of the teeth. Each child is given dental care and is supplied with a tooth brush and instructed in the use of them. After this is done the child is then ready to be placed permanently in a family under our supervision.

Care is taken to select the family. The agent takes the child to the new home, introduces it to its foster parents. Each child of school age must be kept in school regularly. Every month the child's school card is sent direct from this office to the principals of the school who send us a report on the child's attendance and standing in school, also a report on the general health and appearance of the child. In this way we are able to know about the child's school life without the foster parents knowing it.

Every child in our care is visited regularly every three months, and oftener when it is necessary. The family does not know when an agent is coming. One of our largest items of expense in traveling is for carriage hire; this is due to the fact that we do not notify the family when the agent will arrive. In many instances the agent could be met at the railroad station by a carriage from the home, but we feel that an unexpected visit is the best. We also have a system whereby the attendance at church and Sunday-school is checked direct from this office with the pastor of the church the child attends. Under the law every child must be placed in a family of its own faith.

We have to-day under our care 1,603 dependent children; of this number 144 are being boarded with their own mothers and 765 are boarding in the homes of strangers; 694 are in families free. This 694 includes some children whom we have placed with their parents without board, under our supervision. These cover cases where the parent or parents have been confined in jail, and who upon their release have established a home and are financially able to care for the children. When we are satisfied that the parents are doing well we place the children back with them and keep a close supervision over them. This supervision may last for several years. If at the end of that

time we are convinced that the rehabilitation of the home is permanent we discharge the children from our custody to the parents.

I might say that there are two separate divisions of State wards who are committed to us through the almshouses. One, the child who has no one to care for it and for whom we must find a family home. The other, the child who has a good mother who, because of the loss of the bread-earner through illness or confinement in a hospital for the insane or other institution, it was found necessary to commit the children. In such cases we have found that it has been for the best interests of the parents and children for us to place the children back in the home of the mother, under our supervision, and pay her what we would pay strangers for caring for the children. We now have forty-two families with 144 children under our supervision in this way, besides 1,459 children whom we have placed in families. We feel this is one of the most encouraging parts of our work, because we are able to build up the family and help before the home is entirely broken up. Long before the "Act to Promote Home Life for Dependent Children" was passed in New Jersey we were caring for children in the homes of their mothers in this way.

It is just seventeen years since the New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians was organized and held its first meeting. We have worked long enough to see results and we are more than gratified. Of course we have had, and always will have, problems. Very often in placing our boys and girls it is like fitting a round peg in a square hole. We often have to transfer them from one family to another until we find the family to fit the child.

It is gratifying to have our old boys and girls come back to us for advice, even though they are out of our jurisdiction. We have several boys who have grown to manhood in the families we placed them when they were small boys, and who, after their marriage, have taken over the farms of the people whom we placed them with and are respected citizens in the locality in which they have grown up.

A number of these boys who have grown to manhood and who have families of their own have taken young boys from us to raise and are doing splendidly by them. Such results as these make us feel that New Jersey has the right idea in regard to the care of dependent children.

Tuesday Morning, May 2d, 1916, 11 O'clock.

Mental Deficiency in Institutions.

PROF. FRANK A. FETTER, PRINCETON, CHAIRMAN.

THE CHAIRMAN—We have provided this morning a sort of symposium, in which there is but a single opening paper or address, followed by discussion under the ten-minute rule, I believe, by several persons who are dealing with this problem. We trust that a broad general discussion will follow under the five-minute rule, of all those who are interested in the subject. I have the pleasure of introducing as the first speaker Dr. William Martin Richards, M.D., who is about to enter upon his duties as Director of Research at Rahway Reformatory.

Cause and Treatment of Mental Deficiency in Institutions.

WILLIAM MARTIN RICHARDS, DIRECTOR OF RESEARCH,
RAHWAY REFORMATORY.

I thought we were to have a lantern here this morning so that I could better illustrate this subject to you.

We are all more or less mentally deficient. I know in a great many ways I am mentally deficient. It is almost a constitutional impossibility for me to see the obstacles in the way of doing something I want to do very much. My connection with the Rahway Reformatory is a very good example of that. Last November a patient, whose name I will not mention, came to me with asthma, sent to me by a doctor who said he had removed every possible factor in her asthma except possibly the fact that her glasses did not fit her. And sure enough that was the way it turned out. She had a piece of property in Lansing, Michigan, right next to the city market, and she gave me that piece of property. It was possible to put upon that property a building which would bring in a net income of between ten and fourteen thousand dollars a year. Thereafter she did not come

to me for some time. Meantime I had sold my practice in New York. She came to me and tried to persuade me not to relinquish my practice. I told her that unfortunately it was now too late, so I gave back her endowment and also gave back the will she had made in my favor.

The kind of mental deficiency I am going to speak of to-day is not feeble-mindedness necessarily, but the kind of mental deficiency which makes a person a public charge either in an institution or by means of what is called outdoor relief. I have found many of the same features which make a boy a criminal, or a girl a prostitute, makes a man or woman into a pauper, and that the removal of these factors which are sometimes possible changes that person's life into a life of an ordinary member of society.

I classify mental deficiency under three heads: the first, a lack of mental power; second, a deficient mental attitude; and third, deficient educational development. Now, it seems to me that those classes can be better treated early in life than late in life. After I had done some work with Dr. Frank Moore in the New Jersey Reformatory at Rahway five years ago, I was convinced that it is the delinquent school child who goes out into the world and becomes a criminal, a prostitute or a pauper, and that in working in the prisons and reformatories I was working at the wrong end of the line, after a great deal of the harm had been done, instead of at the beginning and before the harm was done. I therefore went to Angelo Patrey, principal of Public School 4, in the Bronx, New York, and to Mrs. Angelo Patrey, assistant principal of Public School 44 at that time, and with their help we picked out from their 5,000 children under them the forty most difficult to handle. These cases were of three kinds: first, the ungraded children who were too stupid for the regular class; second, the backward children who had to take more than one term to a grade; and third, disciplinary cases who played truant or occasionally kicked, bit and screamed for a few minutes at a time a few times a week, and they were sent down to me to see what I could do with them. I thought I would begin with one mental physical defect, and so I began with the one

that was the most common thing in a school child, and that was a lack of vision, or a good deal of discomfort when the eyes were used. We lost track of eight of these children by their being transferred to other schools or having lost their glasses the first week or so. Of those receiving treatment, 80 per cent. did average school work. This was brought to the attention of the New York Board of Health, and a much more expensive experiment was tried. (Dr. Richards describes a number of cases.)

Dr. Moore, Superintendent of the New Jersey Reformatory, and I want to do the same piece of work on the boys in his reformatory. We have a theory that the boys in that reformatory get there from one of three causes: first, mental deficiency due to some physical defect; second, mental deficiency due to a wrong mental attitude toward life. Every once in awhile we find a boy or a girl who feels that the world owes him a living who is unwilling to work at what the world has to offer. That is one example of a wrong mental attitude. And, third, is lack of educational development. What we propose to do at Rahway is to get a thorough history of his heredity, environment, every influence that has been brought to bear on that boy before he came there, and correct all his physical defects. Then we are going to submit him to the process we call psychopathic analysis, get him to tell everything he can in his life that has been lost to the imagination, and then afterward dig out of him by means of his treatment the important things he has forgotten, which, as a rule, are the most important things of all. In this way we hope to change that boy's attitude toward life, at the same time supplementing the religious and ethical teachings that the boys are getting. After we have corrected all the physical defects of an individual, either child or grown person, and after we have submitted that person to an educational course and psychopathic analysis, if that which remains is feeble-mindedness he should be either segregated or sterilized. But what I want to say is that we don't know whether an individual is feeble-minded until we have done these three things on him—corrected the physical defects, corrected his mental attitude, and given him a re-education.

I am not going to burden you with another long list of my cases, but I have had enough to make me believe that we need more medical school inspection and more vocational training in our schools and proper recreation centers, so that boys and girls don't get the wrong mental attitude toward society to begin with. In dealing with men in criminal institutions we must have sympathy. I am reminded very much of a sentence from Rudyard Kipling, and the sentence is, "Even as you and I."

THE CHAIRMAN—It seems that Dr. Richards has come into the State of New Jersey with some revolutionary ideas, and some of the influential workers who are threatened with the loss of their jobs may have very uncharitable views. It seems, however, that their problem is a very simple one. All they need to do is to begin some preliminary studies on fitting the schools to the work, and get on the approved list. It is a question of changing the kind of work that is to be done.

Dr. King is to open the discussion under the ten-minute rule, and I will give proper warning of the time.

DR. KING—I was much interested in the marvelous results obtained by Dr. Richards, in his treatment of fitting glasses to so many children. While listening to him I was consoled by the thought that I had found an outlet where I could send some three or four hundred feeble-minded persons who come before me every year, and who are now on our hands, there being no place to send them. There is no better place to accomplish good results than to send them to the Rahway Reformatory.

As I understand this subject of mental deficiency, it was to be discussed from different angles. May I be permitted to digress some from the paper read by the Doctor, as he appears to deal in physical defects only, showing no evidence that they were feeble-minded? The problem of mental deficiency is so large, so complex and so little understood, I might say misunderstood, that it will be a long time before anything will be done to decrease the growing number of this unfortunate class of human beings. That it is misunderstood is shown by the difference of opinion, the conflicting opinions of so many people who have given this

subject a great deal of thought. There are a certain number of cranks in this country who say that the only proper way to get rid of these patients would be extermination, kill them off. We kill off our mad dogs, but that does not lessen the virulence of hydrophobia. It might be an economical method of getting rid of them, just as it would be to enforce lynch law, but in the present stage of our civilization there is no Christian country on the face of the globe that will stand for such a procedure. There are others who advocate sterility. This method has been tried. It is on the statute books of several of our States. The Supreme Court of the State of New Jersey, as well as that of Iowa, have declared it unconstitutional. Then, too, there is no adequate proof that it has ever done any good, on the contrary great evils have resulted where it has been practiced. As soon as the fact is made known that certain people are sterile, it has been proven that the morals of their particular locality have been very bad. The fear of pregnancy is eliminated, and these persons are subjects of sexual perversion and other immoral acts without shame or restraint. The distribution of syphilis, a prominent factor in the causation of insanity and feeble-mindedness, is greatly increased.

What concerns the public at large most is, What are we going to do with those people? They are with us and what can be done with them? As far as the treatment of feeble-minded persons is concerned, there is no treatment. They should be sent to an institution and kept there as long as they live, but it is a very hard thing to get them there. The heads of the institutions where these persons are received will tell you they are overcrowded. My patience has been worn out more than once when numerous applicants come before me for admission to the institutions for feeble-minded persons in this State. As soon as the proper legal papers are completed, it is invariably the case that we are notified that our patients are placed on the waiting list, and that wait has very often worn out my patience and stirred up a certain amount of profanity that otherwise might have lain dormant in my system. No one can tell me that you can restore mentality to a feeble-minded woman or woman maintained

by our charitable organizations, who are sent to maternity hospitals and kept there until they are fit to be discharged, or until some provisions are made for the care of their illegitimate offspring. They cannot be sent to these institutions for feeble-minded because they are overcrowded. This is not fair. If 500 patients were sent to Dr. Evans' institution at Morris Plains to-day, with the proper legal formalities, even without any warning or notification of any kind, he would have to provide room for them. He could not say he was overcrowded, and he would have to find a place for them. In committing these patients to the State institutions, the person in charge is the only one to decide whether that person is a proper one to be sent there. He can, therefore, have that great privilege of selecting his cases, and by receiving the good ones and refusing the bad ones, it appears to me there ought to be no difficulty in caring for the inmates so selected. The bad results from this method are shown by the manner these feeble-minded women act when there is no such place for them to be received. As soon as they are discharged from the maternity hospital there is no place for them to go. Good meaning persons will have the idea that they ought to be put to work as a servant in some family. Employment of this kind is very often given to them, and as a rule it is generally in the home of a large family who are looking for cheap help. They take that girl and make all sorts of promises, even that they are going to make her a member of their family. She is there but a short time when she is battered about from pillar to post. She is a drudge and a slave, and almost always, when she becomes pregnant, the paternity of her child can be traced to one of the male members of that good and happy home. She goes out into the world again with the same result.

Before you can do anything to lessen the numbers of these persons, you first must provide for them. You also must eliminate, as much as possible, the causation of their mental defects, and not until you are able to do something of this kind are you going to make any progress. I speak from experience, and sometimes I have great doubts that the condition is inherited. We might inherit a certain tendency to insanity.

as we do a tendency to a bad constitution. I think in a great majority of these cases the cause can be traced to the hour of the child's birth. Incompetent and ignorant midwives do a great deal of harm sometimes, and in my opinion they are often responsible.

Between the years 1880 and 1890 there were 14 feeble-minded women who gave birth to illegitimate children in the Hudson County Almshouse. I have delivered these women myself, and every one of their offspring were normal mentally. I have seen these children grow up, who have married and have children of their own, all of whom have made useful members of society, showing no signs of mental disease.

Discussion.

MRS. E. V. H. MANSELL (Superintendent, State Home for Girls, Trenton)—After Dr. Richard's paper, I have not the courage to say how many feeble-minded girls we have in our institution. The probation work in the State is done so thoroughly that the girls are sifted. Each year we find we have a larger percentage of what we consider feeble-minded. We find this is true in all the States; in attending the National Conferences and consulting with other superintendents we find they have the same story to tell. We have 240 in the Home and about the same number on the outside. Those on the outside are visited by two parole officers, who warn or encourage the girls as may be necessary, occasionally changing a girl and now and then bringing a girl back to the Home, having her begin at the bottom again.

We have just secured a third parole officer who visits the homes of the girls still with us, to learn their entire history before coming to us, not the last act which brought her to us, but to learn what her environment has been, what she has had to contend with, what has made her what she is. We have tried in the Home to provide glasses for the girls who seem to need them. We have a special physician come in to examine them. Where he orders glasses they are provided. A girl wears glasses two or three days until somebody says "you look awful funny, you look like a grandmother," and away go the glasses. It is

a constant following up to see that they are worn when the girl is at work. Some of the girls who have been out at service and have money in the bank ask to be permitted to buy their glasses and they have simply the nose glasses, but they have spent so much in repairing them that we have decided if the girl objects to the spectacles, she cannot have the others. Perhaps we don't manage well, but we find in some of the other institutions that they only supply glasses for a girl who can pay for them and she pays the expense of repairing them.

I would like to tell you a little more about our work, but it is hard to crowd in much in ten minutes.

We try to fit the girls for life and those we fear to trust on the outside we try to place in Vineland. We have the same story as Dr. King about Vineland being crowded, but we hope more buildings may be erected and that we may have a chance to place more of our girls there. The trainable girls are fitted to make homes and many of them go out to service. Sometimes they don't like that kind of work, but it gives them a home and clothing, and money in the bank, and after they have earned enough they may take up some special study. We have at present two girls in our office who are paid regular salaries. These girls went to a business college, paying their own tuition, and after that training, working with us very satisfactorily—a third girl is receiving training for the same work. We teach scalp treatment, manicuring, millinery and dressmaking and many of the girls do well.

In time we expect to become part of the State-Use System. Rahway makes our shoes, tinware and furniture and does our printing. The State Prison makes our knitted underwear and stockings, and we expect to make doctors' and nurses' aprons, night shirts and pajamas.

Each girl has her separate room. We don't believe in dormitories. If the State would give us more buildings we could take care of more girls. We have frequently to notify the judges that we have no more room. We have taken two farmhouses and turned them into a home for the little colored girls. We keep the small white girls in a house by themselves, feeling that

the little ones are better away from the influence of the older girls.

We invite you to visit the Home.

THE CHAIRMAN—The next speaker I have known for twenty years. Mr. Stonaker, will you come up and take your position right in front.

MR. STONAKER—Three years ago a commission was appointed by the Legislature to try to get some relief for the insane in this State. That was made up of a strong group of men. They were asked to study and make a report last winter. One of the members of that commission is in this audience, and I think it is due this State and this Conference that what they have found out about mental deficiency should be known. I would like to surrender my time to Mr. Edward D. Page, of Oakland.

MR. PAGE—On April 3d, 1913, five gentlemen, of whom I was one, were appointed a commission to study into the methods and care of the insane in this State, and I wish to lay before this audience some of the results of that investigation.

The commission took up its duties immediately, and in the eight months that elapsed between the time of their appointment and the 19th of February, 1914, they gave a large amount of time to the study of the subject. Two of the commission were physicians, one of them from Morris Plains, the other from the Board of Trustees, at Trenton. The other two were business men, and the fifth member of the commission was the Hon. J. P. Byers, Commissioner of Charities and Correction of the State. The commission first went through the institutions of New Jersey to discover the conditions prevailing therein. But before dwelling upon what method should be employed, the commission visited a number of other States, going from Massachusetts on the east to Wisconsin on the west, stopping at intermediate points, passing down through Pennsylvania, Maryland, etc. The insane of New Jersey, as you know, are cared for in two State institutions and nine county institutions. The State institutions are large and are expensively equipped. So also are most of the county institutions.

We saw the folly, in our study of the insane, of building and equipping expensive buildings likely to last for a long time, because the methods of treatment are changed so rapidly that the buildings are hardly erected before they are absolutely or partially obsolete. There are about 7,000 insane confined in the various asylums. Almost every asylum in the State is full and terribly overcrowded. The Hudson County institution had an excess of about 60 per cent. The Morris Plains institution had an excess population of over 50 per cent. The insane were huddled together under conditions in the best available way, which were very distressing. Places which should have been given up for vocational purposes were taken up by beds. People were thrust together in rooms to such an extent that if they had been under the domain of the Marine Navigation laws the ships could not have sailed from our ports. There were two institutions for the mentally defective, also the private institutions, which had more applicants than they could attend to. We estimated at the time that there were about 5,000 mentally defective persons, largely children, at large in the State. We also pointed out that they were a menace to the community, and, following their instincts, were a menace to children who are not feeble-minded. At only three of these institutions was there any proportionate system for conducting research.

We submitted our views to the Governor, who asked us not to present our views at this time because it was going to cost too much money and asked for another report.

DOCTOR EVANS—I would like to ask Dr. Page if he visited the Morris Plains institution?

DOCTOR PAGE—No, I did not.

DOCTOR EVANS—I beg to say for the information of those present that Morris Plains has conducted a scientific department in connection with its institution for twenty years. It has had its laboratories, and has probably the best organized plant for research work in the State of New Jersey. We are not trying to exploit it either in the State or through the press, but those who are in earnest about acquiring knowledge about what we

are doing can acquire it by a personal visit, and they will be treated cordially, treated well, and invited to call again.

I did mean to discuss some facts of the paper which was read by Dr. Richards, but your time is so limited I don't want to detain you.

THE CHAIRMAN—I am notified by the officers this meeting must close promptly at one o'clock.

DR. RICHARDS—Once and for all, I do not believe that feeble-mindedness is curable. We may be able to prevent feeble-mindedness in early life, but I do not believe we can cure feeble-mindedness by anything. What I do mean is this: Prof. Summer, of Yale, once said some day we might have a committee to exterminate those who are too feeble-minded to get along in this world, but there are many a little wrong mentally, so I should want the committee to be a little considerate.

As regards the cause of these things. I want to give Mrs. Mansell a bit of advice. Miss Allie Jones, who has charge of a Public School in New York, found a very good scheme which has worked out well. Whenever a boy works his glasses are given to him, when he stops working his glasses are taken away. Now, if the glasses are right he will be so uncomfortable when he is not wearing them you will soon find he wants to work.

As regarding heredity, I quite agree with Dr. King that feeble-mindedness is not inherited. What I do believe is that these individuals inherit the physical defects, which, if not properly attended to, prevent development, which in the end is feeble-mindedness. Remember that the mentality of three years of age in an individual of twenty is feeble-mindedness, but mentality of three in a child of three is not feeble-mindedness. We are trying to find out what makes this.

In regard to the cost, is it not cheaper to pay the cost of preventing crime than to pay the cost of treatment afterward? In a high school class I found that 37 boys passed in a class of defectives. Every one of these boys had less than half as good vision as the boys in a similar class. We tried to raise \$150 to fit the boys with glasses. Compared with the amount of

money needed for the police to arrest the delinquents arising from this class, the courts to try them, and the prisons or institutions to take care of them afterwards, it was a small sum. Which do you want to pay, this small price to prevent or the larger amount afterward?

Tuesday Afternoon, May 2d, 1916, 3 O'clock.

Mental Deficiency in Schools.

DR. STEWART PATON, PRINCETON, CHAIRMAN.

DOCTOR WEEKS—I am quite sure there is no one who has done more for the Conference than Mrs. Thompson, and she does not need any formal introduction. We are very glad to elect Mrs. Thompson as President, and can surely look forward to a very great Conference next year. I can say to Mrs. Thompson that if she has the good support of all the people and committees I have had the past year, her difficulties as President of the Conference will be slight, in fact most pleasant.

MRS. THOMPSON—I don't know that I am expected to say anything further than to urge you to use your influence to bring the National Conference here next year. If we can bring this about it will be the biggest thing for New Jersey. I beg of you here to try and do all you can to aid and abet this undertaking.

Address of Dr. Stewart Paton, Chairman.

Before taking up the subject to be discussed, I should like to say that unfortunately two of the speakers who were to be here this afternoon have been detained on account of illness, but we have replaced them. Doctor Cornell, who you know has recently been appointed to Randall's Island, will speak to us. It has also been suggested that the formal part of this meeting be dispatched as quickly as possible in order that we may have a full and free discussion. I assure you it is a great relief to the speakers to feel that these are the sentiments of the audience.

As Chairman of this meeting I shall take the liberty of pushing the formal part of the proceedings through as rapidly as possible, in order that we may have a full discussion of this very important subject.

Five years ago several members of this society prepared a

statement for distribution at the meeting held in Princeton, calling attention to the necessity for taking concerted and intelligent action to conserve the brain power of the nation, and suggesting that the formulation of these plans be entrusted to persons who have some practical knowledge of the machinery by which human activities are expressed and controlled. Keeping this purpose in mind, let me try in a few words to indicate first what seems to me to be the subject of chief interest in this afternoon's Conference, and then if possible link that special interest with the general ones which represent the reasons for the existence of State as well as National conferences on charity.

Doubtless you will agree with me that there is a particular significance in the fact that an alienist has been asked to preside over a Conference in which school problems are the subject of discussion. Education in the modern, not scholastic, sense is a process which has for its object the intelligent direction of human activities. In order to understand and guide a machine in action we must first know something of its component parts and their relations to each other; and, finally, we must have a practical knowledge of the machine's working capacity and behavior when under stress. The greatest tragedy of civilization to-day is not the tragedy of war, but it is the failure of our educational system to prepare human beings to live happily and, therefore, successfully. When once we have adopted the principle that education is a process of securing for living beings a proper adjustment to their environment, one result will be that persons meritoriously classed as educated will not be the victims, as they are so frequently to-day, of preventable diseases; and, furthermore, the possession of an education will be recognized as a safeguard against the incidence of nervous and mental breakdowns, while schools will cease to be experimental stations for giving amateurs quite ignorant of the delicate mechanisms of the brain and nervous system almost unlimited opportunities to see how far these organs may be taxed without inflicting permanent damage.

In order to carry into practice the biologic conception of education there must be a large supply of teachers, capable first of estimating the adjusting capacity of human beings entrusted to

their care, and in the second place these directors of human energy should be qualified to assist students to acquire the form of discipline which is of distinct value in living.

The new education does not ask as the first question on examination how much of the useless information generally imparted in the class or lecture room has been retained, but it does make inquiries concerning the habits of life and the individual characteristics of feeling, thinking, and acting of the students.

Unfortunately the alienist to-day is the only person who is trained to study human behavior critically, with the double object of preventing failures and rendering success more probable in the struggle for existence. If we keep this fact in mind we shall realize the importance of the measure now brought before the attention of the people of this State, proposing a reorganization of the present antiquated system of caring for the insane, and asking for the substitution of a State Board of Mental Hygiene, which will attract to the service of the State persons who are competent to speak with authority upon the fundamental problems connected with the study of human behavior—education, social reforms, penology, the care of mental defectives and a comprehensive scheme for the sober, well-planned guidance of thought and conduct, at a time when not only individuals but nations have gone mad.

If I comprehend the significance of this Conferencé, may not this attitude of mind serve to some extent to express my appreciation of the honor conferred upon me in making me Chairman of this section? I take pleasure in introducing to you the first one of the speakers, who will present the special phases of the problem of human behavior which the committee selected as the subject for the afternoon's discussion.

I now take great pleasure in introducing to you the speaker who has been assigned to us this afternoon. I have known Dr. Bailey too long and too intimately to indulge in very formal terms in presenting him to you. Doctor Bailey.

Selection in Education.

PEARCE BAILEY, M.D., PHYSICIAN TO THE NEUROLOGICAL
INSTITUTE OF NEW YORK AND PARIS.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I have no particular qualifications to speak on the subject of education, and should not be here except for the conviction I have, which is the conviction that Dr. Paton has already expressed, that the first step forward in education will be along the line of those facts which physicians have brought to their attention every day, which result from defects in education. I am not referring to the subject of feeble-mindedness, but to certain traits in character which come out in persons who are not effectively educated. After speaking of that, I will suggest an experiment by which this object might be attained. Let us start at the outset with the assumption that a large number of people deviate somewhat from the normal, and that education to be effective must make allowance for these deviations, if the individuals themselves are to be useful and happy and co-operative in society.

There are two kinds of thinking. One of these kind is logical thought, in which propositions are regarded as impersonal, and the conclusions which are drawn from the facts have nothing to do with the personal interests of the thinker. There is another kind of thinking which is extremely common with all of us, which is wish and fear thinking. In this kind of thinking our wishes and fears rather than our logic create reality, so that when under the domination of this kind of thought we are controlled more by what we want or what we are afraid of than we are by our deductions of reasoning. It is this latter variety of thinking that must be controlled by education, because while thoughts must have feeling, they must not be all feeling. When we let ourselves go with our wishes and fears without logic, we find ourselves striving for things which are impossible, or feeling other things unnecessarily; in other words, we escape from the world of reality. Yet everyone must face reality. It is the

failure to do so that creates so much of nervous disease or insanity, and imperfect social conditions generally. The number of persons who fail and who will not face reality is very large. In the State of New York alone there are over 300,000 who are actually registered during some part of the year as being classed as dependent people. They have shown themselves physically or mentally incapable of facing the question which confronted them, and as a result they become dependents on the State or on philanthropy. Now the purpose of education as physicians see it is to take early in life this class of people who do not check up to the reality of their surroundings, and to see if it is possible to so equip them by strengthening their good points and shaping more or less their weak points to their surroundings, so that in some sphere at least they will be able to give sufficient self-expression to maintain their place. The great social remedy for all diseases and all delinquency, and the great promise of happiness and productiveness of the country is work, and it seems to me that the great purpose of education at present is to find out what kind of work any individual is particularly fitted for, and then to shape conditions so that he can obtain it. As soon as a man has some work that he can do well, he is safeguarded against getting the idea that he is unhappy or unfortunate and the world is against him.

This statement in regard to providing work for everyone may seem very chimerical, but the object merely is to find out as nearly as possible during adolescence the particular qualities that any boy or girl has, and then try to so shape conditions that the life that the boy or girl is eventually thrown into will be of a nature, on the one hand, to give expression to their good qualities and, on the other hand, to protect them from the dangers to which their poor qualities expose them.

So I am coming now to a scheme I have had in my mind for some time—nothing very positive about it—it is a matter I have talked over with Dr. Paton more than once, and that is to, if possible, establish some kind of a central examination plant where individuals could be examined with a view to determining what their fitness was, and, therefore, contributing to the good

of the State in that way. There is no place where that can be done, and I think if there was such a place it might have a very beneficial effect individually on the happiness of the rest of the individuals. The boys who would come to a place like that would be boys who have no opinion, no particular knowledge of what they want to do. Thus there are a large number of boys who have the choice of their employment fixed for them by their parents, and they may disagree with that choice very much, and it is at all times very difficult to tell which is right.

Of the various mental tests that would be made under an institution of that kind, I will not go into detail. You have heard them over and over again. All these opinions and estimations would be gathered together into a final opinion, which would be absolutely free from bias, for the reason that there would be no treatment given in an institution of this kind after the opinions had been joined. The probable result would be that to the first-class boys nothing perhaps could be indicated to them that would improve their chances. The main object of establishing a laboratory of this kind would be entirely experimental and would be for the purpose of determining how character develops under certain conditions. This matter has never been shown.

THE CHAIRMAN—Ladies and gentlemen, I am sure we will all do well to think of the suggestions that Doctor Bailey has presented for our consideration. I, for one, feel it will not be a very long time before his suggestions are realized.

It is now a great pleasure for me to present an old friend, and it is a great pleasure to refer to him as a former pupil, once of Baltimore and now of New York—Doctor Cornell.

Mental Deficiency in the Schools.

DR. W. BURGESS CORNELL, MEDICAL DIRECTOR HOSPITALS AND SCHOOLS, RANDALL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I am under considerable disadvantage, as until a few moments ago I did not know on which subject I was to speak.

The subject of the afternoon discussion is "Mental Deficiency

in Schools." In Baltimore I had a little experience with the problem and for several years I was Secretary of the Mental Hygiene Society and had an opportunity of examining a great many children in the schools. Baltimore did not provide any means for examination of the defective children and in that respect was much behind the time of many other cities. You are probably familiar with the situation in many of the other cities, particularly in Chicago, where the child study department has been in existence for many years and where a very great deal of good work has been done. I am not as yet familiar with the situation in New York, but I hope to become more so very shortly. I know very little about your problem in New Jersey. I do know, however, that the point of attack of the feeble-minded problem is in the schools. Thorough examinations should be made there and the individual cases should be studied from all points of view from the time of registration and with the application of treatment following the diagnosis.

A great deal can be done I am quite sure with the establishment and proper operation of school clinics and with the treatment that necessarily follows. It would also, without any question, relieve to a very great extent the burdens which appear now to be thrown upon the institutions. We all say there are not enough institutions to house the defective, which is probably true, and that will be so for years to come. I for one think the problem can be handled adequately, if not better, by extra bureau agencies. This is in the future. At the present time, however, such established clinics as the Department of Child Study of the Board of Education in New York are doing the work and helping out the individual problem of the institution. Many of you know there are two institutions on Randall's Island, the House of Refuge and the Children's Hospitals. The House of Refuge is the Children's Hospitals and Schools. I use the term in a joint sense, to indicate that every sort of case that does not fit anywhere else is sent to Randall's Island. If, under proper co-ordination and co-operating conditions, such a condition is found on Randall's Island with the insane, epileptic, etc., which should be handled otherwise and which only interferes with the proper

handling and working out of the feeble-minded problem itself, what must it be in less organized communities? We have recently started a Jury Medical Staff Conference, and at this conference we have present the staff physician, the social service worker and the psychologist. I have a decided feeling that the influencing point of attack, at least, is a medical one, and in that way we hope to be of use to the public at Randall's Island.

You are all familiar with the many-sided problem of feeble-mindedness. I only want to emphasize that our point of attack is going to be chiefly medical. We intend to study these cases from all points of view, the etiological, the clinical and biological, and then apply our treatment.

The educational side of the problem is very important and we hope to go into that very thoroughly. I believe that with the co-operation of the many agencies that are all working through Randall's Island, and with the great interest that is shown in New York in a rehabilitation of the old plan, we shall achieve some results in this very important work.

THE CHAIRMAN—Before discussing these papers I shall call upon Mrs. Meytrott to tell us about our experiment in Monmouth County.

What Shall Be Done for the Deficient Child? A Monmouth County Experiment in Co-ordination.

MRS. CORNELIA B. MEYTROTT.

The beginning and the end of any discussion which is worth while must be—"What can we do about it?" My story contains a suggestion or two about the general problem, but concerns particularly Monmouth County—a large, rich, rather populous, chiefly rural county.

It is an old, old question—"How shall the strong help the weak?" But it is a new era. There are new conditions, new thought, and a new conscience. And so we must consider what is the right answer for to-day. The State, in its attitude toward the problem, is still very, very young. But the public mind (which is not really "feeble"—only retarded) is going to wake

up. Then it will act with greater intelligence. Prompted by its own reasoning and by the impulse of the true heart of "human nature," it will fix its attention upon getting an answer to this question. It will so direct and co-ordinate the efforts of scientist, educator, physician and social economist as to come a great deal nearer to finding the right answer.

Have you not watched a little child trying with awkward fingers to mend his own garment? Why does he bungle it? Because (the psychologist would tell you) he does not co-ordinate. Eye and hand have not learned to work together; the mind does not guide them. In spite of good intentions and honest effort, the patch does not cover the hole, the stitches are uneven and useless; in fact, there will always be trouble.

Now the specialist in mental defect, whether he be psychologist, physician or institution superintendent, often sees more—because he has a broader and clearer field; he has the keener, farther vision; he is able to forget the demands of the present while looking into the past and the future. And yet, it is the educator whose hand must do the work of training the child. If the work is to be well done, there must be co-ordination between the efforts of these two. The mind must give attention. The State, in other words, should command the best service from each, not alone individually, but together.

The eye should not forget that the hand gains much through touch; that skill comes from practice as well as from vision. The hand should not neglect to own that the trained eye can see much which is to itself unknown, and that blind effort is seldom worth while. Opportunity is being overlooked; much effort is being wasted.

The specialist reiterates his statements as to the number and condition of the feeble-minded. The educator refuses in his heart to believe. Why? Because of loyalty to his trust, perhaps a mistaken loyalty to the children; it is his to make men and women; to develop efficient citizens out of the raw material which comes under his hand. When someone comes to him and says, "Some of this raw material, much more of it indeed than you think, is more or less useless material, many of these children can

never be men and women or efficient citizens because they will always have the minds of children," his best instincts lead him to say, "I do not wish to believe that. I must not believe it. Except for rare instances, I am not willing to give up hope for these children or faith in our methods." As for the social economist, he too often continues to treat individual cases and to meet present needs, failing to think about a general plan for permanent care.

We have in Monmouth County, however, a social agency with the farther vision. It has justified its existence as a private organization by undertaking more than one important investigation and experiment. In 1913 the Monmouth County Branch of the State Charities Aid determined to find out all that could be learned about the feeble-minded in Monmouth County, particularly the number and condition of the backward and deficient children in the public schools, and to make plans for suitable provision for them. As there are about twenty-two thousand children divided among the schools of two cities, eighteen borough and the rural districts of sixteen townships, it took time to do this carefully. For about two years we were busy digging up and turning over the soil, so to speak, by systematic inspection of all the schools and actual examination, both physical and mental, of over 2,000 children. This was supplemented by a further study of many in their homes.

Then we began to do a little analyzing and experimenting, especially in the rural districts, which have up to this time been quite overlooked. We have also been preparing the soil for a good crop of ideas and efforts by encouraging the discussion of this problem at public meeting and at group meetings of parents, teachers, supervisors, members of the boards of education, and others who should be thinking about it. As for ourselves, we have had an unusual opportunity to study it at first hand from three points of vantage, namely, from that of the research worker, the social investigator, and the school principal. We have been able to see as in a triple mirror the situation in regard to the backward and feeble-minded children in Monmouth County. We have a record for each one of 800

children who were picked out for examination because they were making a complete failure of their school work, children who for some reason have been retarded in their development. We have further data regarding the physical condition, environment and heredity of about 600 children. Evidence which goes to show that about this number in Monmouth County are more than likely to be unhappy failures all through life unless we prevent it. What special opportunity and supervision may do for them is another subject for discussion; but this much we know, that without it the most of them will not be self-dependent, useful men and women.

When the State is ready to assume the care and training and direct supervision of three or four hundred Monmouth County children in the ideal special school plant, farm or colony, we will gladly resign our responsibility. Until that millennial day, we will try to see that our investigators, our public schools and our public-spirited servants of social welfare understand each others efforts in behalf of these children and work together to do the best that is possible for them.

We are working out a plant for our county which will, we hope, create for itself a degree of confidence in the mind of schoolmen, specialists and thinking citizens. As for the unthinking citizen, he has one unfailing suggestion, "Why not send them to Vineland?" I say to him, "That is just the finest plan you could mention, but there is only one good place that I know of which is big enough to receive all the people who should get in—and that's *heaven*."

The largest share of responsibility for the early training of these children must rest upon the public school. The fact that they have been in the public school from three to ten years with little or no profit proves that there is a fault somewhere. Yet no other system is so well prepared to undertake any work for the welfare of children. No other men are so willing to hear and answer the cry of a child in need as the men who administer our public schools. In justice to them we must not forget that the cry of special need is but one note in the general chorus.

What can be done to help the public school perform its duty

toward the deficient child? Has the special class law answered that question? If not, why not? For the same reason that no man's illness is cured by the writing of a prescription. He must take the pill, and if it is the right one, he will be helped. New Jersey has not taken the pill. Rather it threatens to choke on it. It may or may not be the right one. Some say, "We don't need it. This is only a minor ailment requiring a little faith cure, that's all." They have a beautiful faith that the deficient child will turn out all right if left alone. Others say, "It is all wrong. The special child should not be classed by himself." Still others say, "The treatment is too expensive." And then we often hear, "What is the use? No matter how much pains we take in the public school, you know what happens after these children leave us. Nobody cares!" That argument is the most justifiable.

In the plan suggested the special class has its place, but it is different from the type most commonly found. There are two things which constitute the need and right of every deficient child. The first is special opportunity, not necessarily a place in a special class, but the opportunity *somewhere* to learn to do the things that he will need to do and to enjoy the things which he can enjoy. The second, also the third, fourth and fifth, is supervision. The opportunity need not always *be created*; it may often be discovered by simply studying and using resources already at hand in the school, the community, and let me emphasize it, in the home. Supervision of deficient children, systematic supervision, must, on the other hand, be created. There isn't any.

Not all deficient children are alike. They do not all need the same kind of treatment. Some are in the formative period, others have reached the reformatory. Some are apathetic and "innocuous," many are aggressive and socially dangerous. A few are reasonably well understood and protected in their home environment. The greater number are wholly misunderstood and unprotected.

The real special class should be a class of children in the formative period, that is, not over twelve years. It should be re-

garded as a probationary class or clearing house where the child who is decidedly slow and during the early years of school life may be tried out. With physical defects corrected, with new and varied stimuli to excite him to mental activity, concrete teaching and training of the hand, with more personal attention from the teacher which it would be possible to give him here, he will soon start up and run on time unless there really is trouble at "headquarters." Such a class would not be counted a place where a child is stigmatized.

What can we do about the pupils of twelve to sixteen who have made a failure of school work, so many of whom drop out of school to make a failure of life? Because the time is so short in which to prepare them for a possibly useful and happy life, we must consider only what things are best. Few of them have had advantages in home environment, so the school must supply those influences which will overcome the lack of home training. It must furnish ideals of conduct. It must provide practical means of training the hand to some useful task. It must cultivate an absorbing interest in some one thing. And yet within the confines of the school, as now organized, we will rarely find space or material or variety of interests to accomplish all this.

When our dream comes true, we will have a county industrial and agricultural school and farm colony where the ideal training and aftercare will be a possibility. Meanwhile we must find ways of helping these boys and girls within the scope of present resources, or such as may be obtained. Wherever possible, opportunity classes should be organized. This can be done in the larger systems. In the smaller school, special opportunity can be given to groups or even to individuals. There are many possibilities of combining the wholesome influence of well-regulated school life with the learning of a simple trade of vocation outside of the school building, provided there is someone to give time and thought to arranging for the work of these pupils and to give it proper supervision. In the rural districts the problem is greatly simplified, for there such a pro-

gram can be arranged with the least possible risk. Agricultural pursuits are, moreover, most suitable.

Next in importance to opportunity guidance and supervision is registration, *i. e.*, the maintenance of a permanent continuous register for all special pupils. The present law regarding working certificates, if effective, would make it easy to extend this register beyond the time of leaving school. To carry on this work of registration guidance and supervision, it would seem best to have a county bureau.

In each district the superintendent or principal of the school should be the special representative, but he should be aided by one or more members from among the parents, the employers, and local social agencies. This small district group might designate itself a "school-care committee."

A county supervisor should have charge of the work of the bureau, his endeavor being to maintain for each deficient child that balance between environment, occupation and individuality which will bring to him the greatest possible degree of happiness and success.

This bureau should act under the direction of the State Commissioner of Education and the County Superintendent.

The following items are of great importance:

1. That a definite mode of selecting the children be agreed upon.
2. That a thorough study be made of present resources for providing opportunity.
3. That special provision be made for carrying on the extra clerical work involved in making and keeping the register.
4. That the bureau have probationary power over all socially dangerous defective children.

Such a system of care and supervision in the more progressive counties would do more than anything else to prove the need of State-wide study, State supervision, and, for those who really need it, State permanent care.

THE CHAIRMAN—I wish to take the opportunity of thanking the speakers for presenting such valuable suggestions. I hope there will be discussion and questions asked. I would like to re-

mind you, however, that it is half-past four. The psychologist tells us that about fifty minutes is the limit for holding the attention when it is strained.

PROF. JOHNSTONE—It seems to me the Conference has presented a good many diverse sides of the question of feeble-mindedness, and it has been very interesting to note what has been said from this platform. Fifteen or twenty years ago it was a common saying among those who worked with feeble-mindedness that one-tenth of one per cent. of the population of the United States knew what feeble-mindedness was. To-day it is different. I suppose now that forty per cent. know something, and probably ten per cent. know considerable, about it. If you are going to get anywhere after this Conference with its diverse views, we must realize that we don't all know it all, that the problem is very young, the county is young, the city is young, the State is young, employment is young, and we must not expect anybody to know it all in his day. We were told we must look out for immediate facts, because a lot of people are called feeble-minded who are not feeble-minded. We were told this morning that many who were called feeble-minded by the supposedly best psychologist in the country were helped by glasses. We want all kinds of examinations. We need report from teachers, etc., in order to know what to do; we need to have money, plenty of money. We want very badly in this State a psychopathic hospital. You can only get it by money. We need the law. We will need all of these things—research, law—but the very pressing question is, "What are you going to do with Johnny Jones and Sally Brown, that you know are feeble-minded?" Send them to Vineland? How can you send them to Vineland to the Training School without money? Every last one of you can help to get the money. If you say to yourself it is Dr. Hallowell's problem or Dr. Johnstone's problem, this Conference has been wasted. If you go home and say, "This is my job, and there is a legislator who lives in my county and I have a friend who can influence him, and I am going after him this year until he will appropriate money," then we can take care of Johnny Jones and Sallie

Brown. Won't you please remember that this is your job, and any good legislator will tell you that if you want to accomplish anything at the next Legislature you want to begin now?

MRS. THOMPSON—I would like to ask one question. We heard from Monmouth County that the public schools were the first clearing houses to discover mental deficiency. I would like to know if anyone has a suggestion to make on that point, or whether they agree that the public schools are the only large fields where those children can first be found?

PROF. JOHNSTONE—As things are to-day, I don't think there is anything better than the special classes in public schools. The State institutions for insane and feeble-minded ought to have, as quickly as possible, clinics where these people could be detained, examined, and perhaps brought back again and re-examined. I don't think you say that any one of these ways is the best, because nobody knows. The special-class people in the public schools are sure they are right, the institutions are sure they are right, and nobody has worked in any of them long enough to know.

MRS. MEYTROTT—I should like to say that I think the special-class teachers don't think they are filling the places they are supposed to fill. We feel the need of all these other things, such as institutions and clinics, very much, but we feel we are standing too much alone. We need somebody to take charge of the children. I should like to say I think the special-class teachers can do a great deal more than they are doing by keeping records. The records will be used later, though they are not called for very much now.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, in concluding its Fifteenth Annual Meeting, held in Hoboken, wishes to record its appreciation of the spirit of hospitality and the success which has attended the work of the local committees of Hoboken and Jersey City. So many have

co-operated that it would be impossible to mention all. But we may name particularly the Boy Scouts, the members of the Hoboken High School Orchestra, Superintendent Demarest and the school officials who placed at our use the beautiful school auditoriums, the authorities at Stevens Institute of Technology, the officials at Laurel Hill, and the hosts and hostesses who made possible the unique Conferences at Castle Point.

To these, and to many other individuals who have labored to make the local arrangements successful and pleasant, we wish to extend our hearty thanks.

Resolved, That a committee of nine be appointed by the President to recommend such changes in the form of the organization and management of the Conference as may in its judgment be expedient, which report shall be sent in printed form by the Secretary to all subscribing members of the Conference at least two weeks before the next Annual Meeting.

Respectfully submitted,

WALTER REID HUNT, *Chairman*,
AUGUSTINE ELMENDORF,
MRS. E. V. H. MANSELL,
ZEPP H. COPP,
FRANK A. FETTER.

Report of Committee on Nominations

PROF. E. R. JOHNSTONE, *Chairman*,
MR. W. L. KINKEAD,
MISS HARRIET TOWNSEND,
MRS. F. C. JACOBSON,
MRS. G. W. B. CUSHING,
MRS. H. OTTO WITTPENN,
DR. BRITTON D. EVANS,
A. D. CHANDLER,
RABBI SOLOMON FOSTER,
MISS JULIA CONOVER.

(See page 11 for Officers, Executive Committee and Advisory Board of 1917 Conference.

1917 Conference, Montclair, April, 1917.

Revision of Constitution Adopted 1902, Revised 1913, 1916.

Article III, Section 1, was made to read:

An Executive Committee, which shall consist of the President, Secretary and Treasurer, the chairmen of all committees, five (5) of the ex-Presidents of the Conference, seven (7) members of the Conference, and the Commissioner of Charities and Correction.

Treasurer's Statement.

June 1, 1916.

RECEIPTS.

Balance brought forward,	\$1,314 64
Received from 420 contributors,	1,787 92
Interest on bank balances,	20 36

\$3,122 92

DISBURSEMENTS.

Expense of Conference,	\$1,602 73
Balance in bank carried forward,	1,520 19

\$3,122 92

ISAAC C. OGDEN,
Treasurer.

Auditing Committee:

SEYMOUR L. CROMWELL,
HENRY L. DE FOREST,
WALTER KIDDE.

Audited and found correct.

(Signed) SEYMOUR L. CROMWELL,
HENRY L. DE FOREST,

June 21, 1916.

For Auditing Committee.

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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
NEW JERSEY
CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES
AND CORRECTION

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING
BY INVITATION OF THE COUNCIL OF PHILANTHROPIES
OF MONTCLAIR

UNITY CHURCH
FIRST CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH
MONTCLAIR

NEW JERSEY REFORMATORY PRINT
RAHWAY, NEW JERSEY

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RAHWAY, N. J.

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PREFACE

It was natural that all of the sessions of the sixteenth annual New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction should touch upon the problems arising out of the war. It was natural to compare present needs and conditions with those of three years ago. It was encouraging to hear that the Government was planning some system of insurance instead of the haphazard system of pensions to relieve soldiers and their families. This formed the basis for a strong plea for health insurance generally. It was somewhat disconcerting to learn that the good wages of the negro who migrates northward could not buy him decent living conditions and that the vices of the overcrowded, poorly housed negro were invariably perpetuated throughout the city. It was striking when Mr. Burns, of Cleveland, told us that the social worker only half did his work when he relieved a case of distress. He should enter politics and help to elect candidates who would enact laws and help to prevent a recurrence of that tragedy.

These and other topics considered made it evident that the social worker was recognized as a force in the community and that he had unlimited possibilities for uplifting the social strata of our people.

E. D. E.

Organization of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, 1916-1917

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<i>Treasurer</i> , WALTER KIDDE.....	Montclair
<i>Secretary</i> , ERNEST D. EASTON.....	Newark

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HON. EDWARD C. STOKES.....	Millville
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John A. Cullen
Rt. Rev. Wilson R. Stearly

TWO YEARS

Seymour L. Cromwell
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Rabbi Solomon Foster
Mrs. Sidney M. Colgate
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Mrs. G. M. LaMonte.....	Bound Brook	Prof. E. R. Johnstone.....	Vineland
		Mrs. Sarah W. Leeds	

Auditing Committee

Henry L. DeForest.....	Plainfield	Seymour L. Cromwell.....	Mendham
Richard Stevens.....			Hoboken

Sociological Exhibits

An unusual exhibit of the local charities was shown in the reception room of Unity Church and open daily from 9 A. M. to 5 P. M. The following organizations by their exhibits showed how well the philanthropic needs of Montclair are being met:

Altruist Society	Fresh Air and Convalescent Home
Board of Education	Memorial Home
Board of Health	Mountainside Hospital
Boy Scouts	New England Women's Exchange
Camp Fire Girls	St. Vincent's Hospital
Children's Welfare Committee	Tuberculosis Preventive and Relief Association
Children's Home	Unity Forum
Community Garden	Y. M. C. A.
Day Nursery	Colored Y. W. C. A.

OPENING MEETING

Sunday Evening, April 29, 8 o'clock

General Topic: COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

ORGAN PRELUDE

INVOCATION—Father J. J. Gately, Montclair

SELECTION by the Choir, First Congregational Church

ADDRESS OF WELCOME—Hon. Louis F. Dodd, Mayor of Montclair

Ladies and Gentlemen of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction:

I bid you all and each of you a hearty and cordial welcome to Montclair. We feel that you have honored our community in the compliment you have paid us by choosing Montclair in which to hold your sixteenth annual meeting.

We in Montclair appreciate the, inestimable value of the organizations that make up this Conference both to the whole State and to our own community. We want you to feel at home while you are here, and we bid you command our entire hospitality.

The organizations which compose this Conference have already given much to the State of New Jersey in the splendid womanhood and manhood of the loyal workers who are typified by the leaders whose names appear on this program, of your committees and officers. We in Montclair feel it a great privilege to have the opportunity to enjoy with you the deliberations you are about to undertake and carry forward in the two or three days you are to be here. It has been well said that our community looks over or overlooks practically one-tenth of the population of our whole country, and we are happy to have you here with us for this brief time that together we may consider some of the things that affect our fellow men and discover, if we may, ways and means to bring them out of their afflictions and distresses.

You have chosen a community which is peculiarly receptive for the work which you are doing and the deliberations you are about to undertake, because we Montclairians take pride in the

fact that in the activities along philanthropic lines which we have undertaken we have tried to overlook none; we have begun with the orphan babies and gone through the calendar of philanthropy, and we feel that we are perhaps fitted to confer with you in these meetings.

We hope that the State of New Jersey will not only be tremendously benefited in this Conference, as it has been in the past, but that in the interchange of views we may all learn that which will make for greater usefulness in the future.

You are meeting in an hour of crisis when the whole world is sick and bleeding, and the great cry of humanity is for service. It is a fitting time, therefore, and we, the citizens of Montclair, should join with you and the citizens of this whole State in giving thoughtful consideration to the great problem of the brotherhood of man—acknowledging and realizing that we *are* our brother's keeper.

It was my privilege to appoint, in connection with the holding of this Conference, a Citizens' Committee. That committee has co-operated with those who have arranged the Conference, and it is now my great pleasure to introduce the chairman of that committee, the Hon. Starr J. Murphy, who will say a few words of greeting to you.

HON. STARR J. MURPHY**Chairman Local Committee, Montclair***Greetings.*

His Honor the Mayor has spoken the word of official welcome on behalf of the municipality. To me is assigned the pleasing duty of saying a word of greeting on behalf of the community and the local committee.

I wish to share in the Mayor's expression of our gratification that the convention has chosen our town as the place in which to hold these meetings. We deem ourselves honored by that choice and your presence here. We feel also that all of our local institutions will be stimulated to renewed activity and that those who have charge of the conduct of their affairs will be greatly benefited by the papers and discussions presented, and by the suggestions and counsel of those experts whom you have called to participate in your conference.

And we hope that our community problems may be helped toward solution by your discussions of community questions in general. It is characteristic of the modern point of view that so many of the problems which in earlier days we considered individual problems we now recognize to be community problems as well.

The three great enemies of mankind are disease, poverty and sin, and the mother of these is ignorance. The remedy for ignorance is education, using that word in the broader sense to include enlightenment as well as training. For many generations, in this country and in the more enlightened nations of the world, we have recognized education as a community problem, and no longer consider it a matter of indifference that even a single child should grow up in ignorance and without training. And in spite of criticisms against our system of education, public and private, in spite of its deficiencies in technique, in spite of the normal resistance of the young of the human species against being educated at all, satisfactory results are achieved in splendid and intelligent citizenship.

The problem of disease is now generally recognized as a

community problem. Few communities are so backward that they do not know that. The chief cause of poverty is coming to be recognized as sickness—sickness which robs the family of its savings, and particularly that which takes away the breadwinner, leaving us the dependent family.

We are coming to see clearly now that poverty is a community problem. It has its individual side, of course. We are inclined to say when a man is poor that it is his own fault—he ought to be more industrious, or more saving; but we are beginning to realize that while that is true to a certain degree, there are other factors in it which are community factors, and it is becoming more and more clear that whatever the cause, society is interested because society in the last analysis has to pay the bill.

The greatest single element in poverty is the dependent family whose breadwinner is taken away by death or chronic illness. Society cannot afford to allow that family to be neglected, because the question whether these children will grow up to be social assets or social liabilities depends largely on whether they have a mother's care while growing up, and no woman can be the mother in charge of the children at home and also be the breadwinner. Society will have to pay for that family, either willingly and intelligently at the beginning by proper care and preventive methods, or later reluctantly and more dearly. I was talking a short time ago with a man in charge of relief work of one of the large charitable organizations in the city, and he told me of a case which had come up a few days before which illustrates the point perfectly. A family was brought to the attention of the society, consisting of a widowed mother, a son of eighteen, a daughter of sixteen, and a younger daughter. The son was in jail serving a term under sentence for theft. The sixteen-year-old daughter had already entered on a life of shame. The question came before his committee as to what could be done with this family. He told them that practically nothing could be done; it was too late. They could try to find a job for the boy when he came out of jail, but no one wants a boy with a jail record. It might be possible to reclaim the girl, but the probabilities were against it. Then he turned to the files to see if they had any record of the family. He found that eight years before, the mother, recently a widow, had applied to the Society for aid. In accordance with the practice then obtaining the case was investigated and it was found she was

an able-bodied woman and could earn enough money during the day to support the family, so it was decided that no assistance was needed. After seeing this record, he called on the woman, and she broke into tears and said, "What could you expect to happen when I had to be away from the children all day long?"

Now, gentlemen, for I want to say this particularly to you men, we pride ourselves on being business men and like to look at questions in a hard-headed practical way, so for a moment let us disregard all considerations of humanity; let us forget the anguish of that mother at seeing the ruin of her family; let us ignore the misery that lies before that young man and that young woman in the careers in which they have engaged, and look at it solely from the standpoint of the social ledger and balance sheet.

We are beginning to do a little better in the treatment of that kind of case. Society is beginning to recognize its obligation and beginning to issue pensions to widows. An institution with which I am connected is caring for forty families of that kind. After careful investigation we give whatever sum is needed to enable the mother to keep the family together and give it her personal care and attention, seeing that they have a decent place in which to live, and proper food and clothing, caring for their health. Eyes, teeth, noses, throats are taken care of, and the children are kept in school. That costs on an average \$500 per family. In the case referred to just now this perhaps would have gone on for six years; then when the young man came to be a wage-earner the amount might have been reduced, and by the time the girl came to be sixteen and could be a wage-earner, too, it would have been still further reduced and eventually the family would have been on its feet and the young people grown up to be useful members of society. That was not done, and now what has it cost society?

It has already cost a substantial sum to put that boy through the criminal courts and to maintain him in prison. If he continues on the path on which he has started—as he is almost certain to do—he is going to be a social liability as long as he lives. He will either prey on society outside the prison or be supported by society in the prison. The financial burden that that girl is going to lay on society is beyond calculation. And that is not all. That boy and girl will probably both leave descendants, who in all probability will also go into walks of crime and prostitution. "The sins

of the fathers are visited upon the children unto the third and fourth generations" and on society also.

Now looking at this case simply as a hard-headed business proposition, you will see that the neglect of that family in its hour of need was, from the standpoint of society, the most wasteful extravagance.

Sin, too, is a community problem—sin or crime, as you look at it from the standpoint of the individual or of society. Crime is largely a matter of juvenile delinquency, and that to a great extent is due to failure to provide proper and natural outlets for the desire for play, recreation, and pleasure, which are necessary and legitimate factors in the life of every human being; they are the lubricants of life, and everybody who knows machinery knows you must have lubricants as well as power.

We are not seeking to break down the sense of individual responsibility and initiative and effort, but we must recognize facts as they are and that individual problems are also related to the community problems. Perhaps the reason why society has been so slow to recognize its obligations is the fear of tending toward the breaking down of individual responsibility and effort. But we have to take the universe as God made it. We have to go out into the universe with head erect and mind alert and eyes wide open patiently to inquire and fearlessly to recognize what God has wrought, and not stay in our studies and try to believe that the universe is not the kind of place it would have been if we had made it instead of God. We must recognize the facts even though such recognition may seem to have its dangers. There will be plenty of opportunity for individual will and effort even though we do recognize the truth that these individual problems also have their community aspects.

Now, one word as to the way of approach. When Jesus was considering the problem of the high cost of living, what men should eat, and what they should drink, and wherewithal they should be clothed, He summed it up in these words: "Seek ye first the Kingdom of God and all these things shall be added unto you." Apart from their religious significance, those words contain the greatest economic truth that ever fell from human lips.

In these days we see all the free nations of the world, Belgium, first in honor and in sacrifice, France, Great Britain, Italy, and the other nations of Europe—except those so close to the seat

of conflict that they dare not act—our own beloved land, far-off Japan and China, alien in race and creed yet one in the common cause of humanity, united in this struggle to crush for ever the monster of military absolutism, that democracy may exist and men may be free. Oh that all the forces of Christianity and her elder sister, Judaism, yes, and of the other great religions of the world might join in a great alliance to apply the principles of the Kingdom of God to the solution of the secular problems of life, in which the strong would put their strength at the service of the weak, to do all that love can wisely do—I say that again, that you may remember it, all that *love* can *wisely* do. The way is dark and the solution of the problems not clear, and we cannot see the goal as yet, but we have faith to believe that love, all-embracing love, self-sacrificing love, enlightened love—love, will find out the way.

(Applause.)

RESPONSE AND PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

**Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson, President New Jersey Conference of
Charities and Correction, 1917**

After the most auspicious beginning to the afternoon's meeting, and with promise of good things still to come, I am going to take only as many minutes of your time as a President has to take and not one minute over to try your patience. I must first offer a few words of regret on the part of Governor Edge.

He kept this date for many months, hoping to be with us today, and it was only when it proved to be his one chance of a short rest after an arduous legislative session, that with sorrow he decided he could not be here. He sends through me his best greetings to you all and every good wish that we have a successful conference in Montclair.

And now I should like to express my own personal pleasure in being here. I have already found much enjoyment in the few brief visits I have made on the business of the Conference and I am counting that on leaving here I shall not only have received as a member of the Conference a real benefit from the spirit of the place but that I shall also take away the sense of friendliness and kindness that will be a lasting legacy and a promise of future

inspiration and blessings that may continue to come to us all from Montclair.

I wonder if this Conference is going to lose vitality or a sense of the imminence of present problems because we have not taken up in our session either the present prison situation at Trenton or the effect on the social problems of the State of our entrance into the great world WAR.

As far as prison matters are concerned it was decided by those interested in the Conference and serving on the Program Committee that pending the investigations being made of penal institutions by the very eminent Commission that was so wisely chosen to do this work, it would be better and more helpful not to precipitate discussion until the facts and findings were before us and before the public.

As for the larger question of our responsibilities to the National situation—how we can best serve the State and through what channels our warm feelings of love and patriotism can best flow, I hardly know what to say. But it seems to me that most of the people here today are capable, as Phillips Brooks has said, of seeing both back grounds and fore grounds. In fact, people who have thought earnestly and constructively along social lines are pre-eminently those who have carried the back ground to meet today's problem and to shape a fore ground of preparedness that will be a sound and natural development of work already done and not an unrelated and sporadic effort born of excitement. At the present moment, in many places, action is following so quickly upon impulse that thinking people are discouraged at the ill-considered activities springing up all around them and almost feel that they are witnessing a backward step in the march of Civilization. But surely this is not a moment for discouragement nor for a feeling of loss of power on the part of those who have up to now led the forces of social progress. This is in many ways a group of leaders, and this is a moment when leaders should come into their own.

I know I am addressing a group whose patriotism is of a high order; people who have carried the burden of making democracy successful along a weary road, where no crowds lined the pathway, where no banners were waving and no flags unfurled. But again I say I cannot and will not feel that we should be discouraged for the cause of peaceful, steady social progress.

For all permanent social progress the first essential is that public attention should be aroused, and surely now the country is awake. The question on every tongue is, What can I do? Are you not ready to answer this? Are you not ready to repeat once more and this time to listening, eager ears, the tale of obvious daily duties due from every citizen to the State? Surely you need not discourage effort, nor dampen ardour, nor quench the bright flame that springs from such glowing, willing hearts. Is it not possible to make it your opportunity to show to opened eyes what is the larger patriotism? Can you not draw on this fine enthusiasm for more than a war program? Cannot the health of soldiers bring a movement towards better health standards in every community? Cannot camp sanitation be made a demonstration of home sanitation? Cannot the problem of the soldiers' families be made to lead to a better understanding of the relation of the wage standard to the family problem, and to infant mortality, and the necessity shown of scientific, constructive family work? Cannot the children be regarded as the citizens, or, say soldiers, if necessary, of tomorrow? Are not the questions of their health and education, the problems of dealing with the backward and deficient, treading on the questions and problems of today as everyone is seeing them? Cannot we joyfully further a movement that calls prohibition a *Military* necessity for the nation?

Our work may have to be called by new names, words may have to be borrowed from military phraseology to bring our needs home. But it is a moment to speak, and it is a moment when we shall be heard. It is an opportunity to make America realize that all preparedness is one and the same. That it can only be built on a sound social organization. It is a moment when the spiritual significance of work can be appreciated by those whose eyes till now have been closed in the sleep of indifference. It is a chance which may never come again in our lifetime of opening the window, as the prophet did of old, and letting the youth of this country see that the hosts of the Lord cover the mountain sides and are ever ready to descend when the leaders are the leaders of social justice and social truth and the prize of the battle nothing less than a better world for all His children to live in. I now have the honor to introduce to you a gentleman who has been in Montclair before, many years ago, I think, when he made a survey which I imagine has been of great profit to this commun-

ity. Since then he has been connected with the well-known survey made in Pittsburgh, and is now Director of the Cleveland Foundation. I know you will all be glad with me to welcome Mr. Allen T. Burns.

“HOW TO GET COMMUNITY RESULTS”

Address by Allen T. Burns, Director, The Cleveland Foundation, Cleveland, Ohio

Madam President, Ladies and Gentlemen: The striking statement of that question “How to Get Community Results” left me no alternative but to accept quickly your very cordial invitation to be with you tonight. The question is not, as it might have been stated, how to get results in philanthropy, in reform, or in social service, but how to get community results. Perhaps some of us well-intentioned people see little difference, and yet it is a fact that perhaps we are too often interested in getting results, philanthropic or social or institutional results, not realizing the bigger problem and value of community aims.

Many illustrations of this could be brought up from your experience and mine. The other day one of our clearest-minded social workers in Cleveland expressed his great chagrin and disgust that our control of the moving picture business (which doubtless is a problem in New Jersey as it is with us) had not become such that his children could attend and find there all the standards observed which he himself believed in. He is one of the clearest thinkers in our country on subjects of recreation and amusement, and as he broached this point of view I asked him whether he thought those who had not considered so profoundly the question of amusement were going to let the highest standard that possibly the community could ever attain rule at the present time. A personal judgment was to be his standard of community result.

More recently I was talking with the president of one of our largest steel companies, also president of the board of trustees of a library. He was considering asking for one of our large institutions an additional endowment of money, something more than a million dollars, and the suggestion was made that it might be better for the community to do something for its own library

rather than be entirely dependent on the good will of philanthropists. This gentleman quite rejected the idea that it could possibly be for the welfare of this town to take any part in maintaining or operating what has come to be recognized as so much of a community institution as a library, for, said he, we are interested in having the best possible library and would not for one moment allow the community thought and weaknesses to be reflected in its operation. Again we see a point of view altogether too prevalent among people of good will who think that the best thing is to inflict their own ideas and standards on others without consideration of the composite thought and measure that must be applied in securing any community result.

Our friends, the Pacifists, I suppose, have given the most recent and striking illustration of this; in trying to make international non-resistance a political issue they are really trying to put their own personal belief into action against the will of the majority, or else they must have been vastly deceived as to the will of the majority in this country. So we might go on multiplying instances of the way in which efforts are being made to substitute steadfast and strong individual beliefs as to right and good and service, in place of a community standard of commonweal and aim.

Why is it that men of good will so often make this error? Why is it that they so commonly make the mistake of taking their own benevolent aim, the result which they could so easily obtain if their will could be law, as a community result? It may be perhaps that we so often forget how unrepresentative we are. Numerically speaking, people of the experience and background of most of us here this evening are an insignificant proportion of the great masses of our people. When you remember that less than ten per cent. of our population have had as much as a high school or secondary school education, when you remember that in our great industries only two per cent. are in a position of supervision or administration, carrying these positions down as low as gang bosses, when you realize that half of our population have incomes of less than \$900 a year, that only one per cent. have as much as \$5,000 or more a year, then you recognize how far most of us must be from sharing in the common lot and thought and how far from being in close experiential contact with the

thought and standards that must prevail much more widely than our own.

If we are interested in community results, the results must somehow represent the community will, and if our benevolence and good will is deep and fundamental the first question we shall ask ourselves is: How can the different members of the community better understand each other? How can we come to some common agreement, so that the community result may be truly democratic, may be communal?

One of the great newspaper systems of this country has a daily publication in the West that carries no advertising. It is what the proprietor calls a feeler of public opinion. His theory of journalism is that the public interest must be represented in the news printed in order to secure circulation, and so secure the necessary advertising; and this one publication of his, without the advertisements, tries out from day to day its material and news and editorials for the sole purpose of finding what the people like. By dint of this method he is most successful in discovering what will be read and in knowing what to print and so securing large circulation.

Those of us who are interested in community results and how to get them need to be just as concerned and just as ingenious in discovering what results can be secured and still be representative of the community will and thought. No philanthropic institution has rendered a greater service or come nearer to duplicating this newspaper scheme in the community than the social settlement. Far more important than its institutional activities has been its original purpose of being the house of the interpreter. We are likely to forget this in large organizations and equipments that have sprung up around this name and this tradition. Now, when we are thinking that community center work may pass perhaps from private philanthropy into our schools let us remember that the very heart and the very corner of that influential movement lay in the fact that it was a method by which different groups of experience and background could come to understand each other. So, however the institutional aspect of the settlement movement may change, as long as people's experiences and opportunities are as diverse as those already cited, we cannot do without the interpreter's service, the exchange that comes from the neighborly resident, the person of culture and resource coming to share the com-

mon lot where opportunity has been less. This is necessary in order that we all may understand better what community needs are and how possible of attainment and how attainable. This task of understanding can never be accomplished through the most careful scientific or social investigation. From statistics and figures we can never get the thought and feeling and emotion that lies back of these lives that are narrow and pressed down by the very burdens of existence. But when once we have felt with them by neighborly contact how closely poverty presses we may understand why the most ardent aims and ambitions of our "Child Labor" advocates are not so easily attainable. We may realize, if we have seen the workers coming from work, from the monotonous routine so characteristic of all industry today, so deadened and fatigued as to be unable to engage in any wholesome recreation in the evenings, how unintelligible to them is the effort of us good church people for the strict enforcement of our old Sunday Blue Law. Or, after that approach and contact we may understand also why the movement for prohibition—of which I am heartily in favor—shows no response, no appreciable strength, in our great industrial districts, where the cheapest and easiest thrill and sensation comes through alcoholic beverage. When we appreciate how few the sensations are, then we may come to know better how we must mingle our views with others and reach a common denominator of community action if we are to expect results that in any sense represent the community spirit.

But it would be of little use, this interpreter's function of the social worker, if we were to be satisfied merely with understanding and trying to reach a knowledge of what the next step higher should be and then doing nothing more. We should be too truly described by the rather facetious visitor to a settlement who said it was like the drunken man, a little less tipsy than his brother, who found his brother lying in the gutter and said, "Well, since I can't help you up I will lie down beside you." None of us, though starting with an understanding of the community situation, can be satisfied to let it rest there. We must thank this spirit of benevolence and good will, which so often has been undemocratic and individualistic, for helping us to find the common denominator, and the next step forward will be to keep us from trying either to make the rest of society lift itself by its own boot straps or to advance in three-league boots. While discovering the pos-

sible steps through which the community as a whole may advance, we must believe these steps can be realized, but realized only through long, arduous, and patient processes of community education.

Jacob Riis, I believe it was, who said that nothing happens in the community in less than ten years. Few of us are willing to be as forward-looking, as persevering and enduring, as that statement necessitates. And yet, here again, the children of the light may learn from the children of this world. I heard only today of an advertising plan that was very successful for one of our large automobile concerns. They began by borrowing money from several banks, not because they needed so much money or from so many banks, but primarily as a sales method, because, becoming acquainted with many banks they then visited them all and endeavored to sell automobiles. In this they were fairly successful, due to the acquaintance already set up, more or less enhancing the interest of the banks in the business. Then, after this silent, quiet campaign had been conducted for about a year, we all saw the advertisement of this particular machine—"The Banker's Car. Look and See"—and we looked and saw, and behold it was true! Something as ingenious as that must be devised in helping our communities to take these next steps, and effort as patient and painstaking be directed toward community education.

I suppose there is hardly a better illustration of the success that may come in this way than the movement of the Consumers' League for the Early Shopping and Evening Closing, before Christmas. There, without any law, by sheer force of public opinion, after long years of education, in my part of the country at least and, I understand, in the east as well, the community was brought to accept the standard as its own. Of course we hear of mixed motives in this campaign and the support the merchants give to it, but such mixed motives enter into every step by the community. If it is to be the community result that is to be secured it will be made up of mixed motives as the community is mixed in its make-up. Our understanding of the Anti-Tuberculosis movement and the Playground movement are striking illustrations of how the social worker has seized upon a need felt in some degree throughout the community, and by persistent, painstaking propaganda secured the adoption of this policy as a community conviction. In quite striking contrast to the success, it

seems to me, of these two movements, is that of our relief or charity organization movement in this country. For the work accomplished, for the good done, that movement is less understood, more criticized, more suspected, than any other of our great social institutions. Can it be, I often wonder, that this earliest of our social movements has missed this point of making itself understood, of interpreting itself so to the community that the community might take it up and appreciate it and make it its own, as it has in much shorter time appreciated the methods taken to fight tuberculosis and to furnish adequate recreation for our young people?

We might go on, indicating how the second step in securing community results is through community education. Let me speak out of my own experience, for it is experience alone that has convinced me that through community education almost any social result can be accomplished, provided we start at the point where the community is, with the thinking it has already done, or begun to do, and then, in true pedagogic manner, lead them to the next point ahead. I remember the Good Friday seven years ago in Pittsburgh, when more than a hundred of the public officials were either indicted or confessed to the taking of graft in connection with bank deposits of city funds. Immediately, some of the public-spirited citizens of Pittsburgh believed the time had come to rouse the community out of its lethargy and indifference, and said, "Here for once is a moment when citizens who have been taken up with accumulating fortunes and gaining prosperity for themselves can be awakened to the shame of their government and made to see something better." But the influential citizens were largely indifferent still. Not a paper would mention the movement for entirely reorganizing the Pittsburgh government. But a group of young men, who had no money, who could hire no halls, began persistently to speak on street corners, and for about a year went to work very quietly organizing, doing little but telling the story of Pittsburgh's shame and of methods of municipal government that had really prevented such corruption in more developed municipalities. By sheer force of appeal to popular opinion that movement came to be noticed at last, first by the press, then by influential citizens, and, last of all, by office holders. Against what seemed insuperable difficulties, Pittsburgh was aroused to its disgrace, overthrew its gangsters, and through the persevering and

enduring efforts of almost unknown, but strong citizens, secured community results of lasting value.

In our work in Cleveland we made this principle of community education our prime method in trying to secure community results, for whether the Constitution follows the flag or not, surveys seem to follow me, or I follow them, and in the Cleveland Foundation my main work has been up to the present the making of social surveys of the City of Cleveland. The method differs somewhat from that of Pittsburgh. We spent two months trying to find out what the community could be made to think about, in what line it might care to advance; we talked to labor leaders, office holders, ministers, representatives of foreign nationalities, every leader of public thought and community action whom we could reach, and finally they all agreed that public education was Cleveland's greatest need, and that if Cleveland could be made to think seriously and continuously enough about that problem this one very dark spot, in contrast to her other progressive policies, might be obliterated. And we believed that only by community education could this result be achieved.

The method was as follows: Before deciding to make a survey of schools, we secured the man whom we wanted to direct such a survey, and had him go out and tell organizations how he would do it if they wanted it done. Then they proceeded to ask that the Cleveland Foundation, and this particular gentleman, should undertake the work. That in the first instance made the thing a community undertaking. Then we at once organized what came to be known as our Monday Town Meeting, where any interested citizens came each week and heard the story of the progress of the work; our devices, our methods were explained. We got specialists from many parts of the country and as they gathered information, revealed the facts without drawing conclusions, the more facts we told the more people came to listen. Then, as we were ready to draw conclusions and make recommendations, after about a year of preparatory work, we found the community in a state of mind to agree largely with the conclusions we drew. Some of our criticisms were very harsh and bitter and were resented by the officials who were responsible. At the very close of the study we were criticized as nuisances and public plagues and a few other things by our friends of the School Board, but were much interested a few weeks later to find members of the

legislature from our county coming to us and saying they believed the community wanted the recommendations carried out which the Survey had made. It is perhaps almost the first time on record when social workers have not had at least to take the initiative in securing the interest of the legislature in remedial legislation. For once, the legislators, who usually feel the social pulse better than we can feel it, saw as we saw, and with no effort on our part we secured the legislation.

Only a few weeks ago the Board of Education itself—and its personnel is not changed—came to us and said it had found such an increased interest in the condition of the schools, that it had become so much easier to take the progressive steps they desired to take, that they wished we might conduct a continuous survey of their institutions. Had we needed any more convincing proof that community education is a fundamental way to get community results, all doubts would have disappeared with this experience. But we must remember always that community like individual education must start with establishing a point of contact, and not with trying to lead the community in directions about which it is thinking very little or not at all.

Yet it would not be fair to think that all community results that are desired can be secured through remedial laws. If there is one outstanding weakness in American social progress it is the number of laws on our statute books that are unenforced. The most outstanding shame has been the way in which the laws against commercialized or other forms of vice have been entirely unenforced. In my own state, through public education, we secured the most advanced child labor law that any state possesses, but it again is unenforced. Some five years ago some well-meaning citizens of the country believed that the industrial situation of the country could be relieved by an investigation, and we secured the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. We found its methods and work almost the opposite to the purposes with which the movement had been promoted. Can it be that our public office holders often look upon us social workers as the unjust judge did upon the poor widow? Do they know that it will be easier to grant our plea than to go on listening to us, with no idea of what we ask for having any more effect than being put into words? We all remember still with horror the Triangle fire, with its fearful loss of life, the process of community educa-

tion which followed, with the result that an industrial commission was created which it was believed would prevent any such horrors in the future. And it was only a few years after that the Williamsburg fire occurred, with similar loss of life. Then those who had plead for the original Commission, who had been back of the investigation and secured the permanent board, urged upon the Governor that this board that had been so ineffective be discharged. And for some reason the Governor was much deafer to the plea to displace an office holder than to that which had secured the original statute. Why is this? Could it be that those who are interested in petitioning for laws for social reform are much weaker in support at the polls than those who have other interests in the elections? Such must have been the Governor's judgment in New York. He seemed more afraid as far as political matters went of those who might be made hostile by displacing office holders than of the legislative influence of the social reformers. This should impress on us the additional method for securing effectively community results. We must be as willing to vote and work for votes for our community results as those who have more private and personal interests in our elections. Yet that very thing is obnoxious and repellent to most of us. If there is anything that is ridiculed and maligned and despised in this country it is the engaging of the ordinary citizen, perhaps most of all the social worker, in political contests. If community results are to be made secure we will have no choice in the future but to follow this line of action. All over this country there is a slackening, a slump, in social legislation, and has been for the last year or two. I heard our Governor of Ohio make his address to the present legislature. In his previous term of office he had passed this progressive Child Labor law, secured the most advanced industrial compensation law in the country, and a most remarkable children's code, caring for all phases of child welfare. In this, his second term—and there had been an interim in which he had not served as Governor—he said, "We will have no new legislation." I enquired why there was such a change. When in Congress he had been the father of our federal children's bureau bill, and I knew his heart was in securing community results for community welfare, and after making some inquiries about this apparent change of front, it seemed that the conclusion must be that he had found that men and women interested in securing

these so-called community results from legislatures were by no means as much in earnest when it came to giving the necessary political backing to establish these results.

Another illustration. There is a congressional district in this country from which have come some of our foremost congressmen. At a recent election the question of national prohibition loomed up, and it was a problem in the mind of every candidate whether to declare in favor or against. One young, fairly inexperienced aspirant came out boldly on the issue, for he found from local records that about eighty per cent. of the voters, or a number equal to that, had signed a petition protesting against any saloon licenses being granted. To his amazement he was overwhelmingly defeated at the election and he went back and investigated—surveyed, perhaps!—that petition of 20,000 people, and found that only one-third of them were qualified to vote at all. Such may be the difference between our good intentions and willingness to do the necessary political work to establish community results.

The City of Cleveland, of which I am a comparatively new citizen, has become justly famous for progressive municipal activity. We have a city infirmary which is visited by citizens from this country and abroad; we have a system of reforming the criminal which is being studied by penologists throughout the land; we have established a public employment office, distribute free milk for the children, care for the expectant and new mother and her baby perhaps more than any city in the country; we have made public activities of private philanthropies; and yet at the last municipal election, being my first in that city, I was astonished to find that it was considered utterly bad form for those who had petitioned the administration for any of these progressive policies to take any part in trying to continue it in power. Thinking in my ignorance that it was the right thing to do, I was quite rebuked by those of long experience. I was not at all surprised to find that that regime was overthrown and that a party that cared little for the social worker or his schemes came into office. Perhaps the social reformer of Cleveland may have learned that he must be as determined in his political life as those who are interested in franchises or railroad or lighting rates, if he is to establish his community results. This is no easy prescription, as a method for getting community results. It is distasteful to us, and we ask

why must we be involved in this ungracious service? In the first place community results are going to be secured only by the work of the community voter and the community citizen, because the community alone is going to be adequate with its resources for rendering the service which social needs require. The movement for mothers' pensions is evidence of the fact that our private relief agencies have been insufficient. Very early the enemies of tuberculosis appreciated the fact that if that dread foe was to be overcome nothing else than full community opposition must be marshalled. At the present, we are facing perhaps the supremest test of our efforts in benevolence and good will. We are going to learn even much more emphatically than we have yet that nothing but the entire community responsibility and capacity will suffice.

The other day I was talking with a leading citizen of Winnipeg, that comparatively little city of 160,000 population from which 27,000 men have gone to the war. "We at first tried to meet the situation by philanthropy and benevolence," he said; "we collected some \$800,000 to help those left behind, but we found it was all too insufficient, so we have turned to the only possible resource that is adequate, the public itself." And we are going to find, beyond question, in the stress and strain of this struggle that is before us that the community as a whole is the only sufficient resource for acquiring and meeting community results and needs.

But the question arises: Will they be well met? We have been chagrined and almost ashamed at the hesitation, at the vacillation with which the issue in this country has been faced. We have been wondering why it is. I am wondering now whether the explanation is that we have in the past so far resigned our function of self-government as to make our public officials unaccustomed to face solely from the point of view of public interest their public duty. Have they been so used to look to the office seeker or desirer of special privilege for instruction that they have lost their sense of understanding what the whole community might demand?

You ask why this function of self-government and participation therein cannot be resigned or neglected? Go back to that steel town to which I referred in the beginning. The reason that steel town needed to support its own library was, to use the word

of its own librarian, because it had been spoiled by philanthropy; to use the words of the superintendent of the largest mill of the company, the community spirit was dead. There was a community more than two-thirds of which were alien to our country, and yet taking no step of its own accord to acquaint the alien population with our common medium of expression or make them understand the deeper significance of American life. It was a community so paralyzed that its housing conditions have cried to heaven for regulative law these ten years and yet there was no determination to remedy those conditions.

It is not because self-government and participation in it will secure high community results, but because so far it has proved the best tool for developing human beings that we Americans believe in it. If in this present time of emergency, this self-government is to prove potent it must be because we have recovered from our lethargy and indifference.

We are fond of saying this war is a war against autocracy; we might say that it is a war between self-government and benevolence, for looking at it from the German point of view, the German attitude is that they have been willing to let one person do their thinking for them, to yield almost entirely their participation in their own public affairs.

Germany has perhaps invaded this country even before this great world war broke out; in so far as we have yielded and surrendered this great right for which our forefathers laid down their lives we have begun to be Prussianized. Perhaps it may be in this fiery struggle through marshalling our forces again, in assuming our responsibilities for community results through common effort for a common aim, that self-government may be reborn, never to perish from the earth.

(Applause.)

Benediction, after singing "America," by Rev. Charles S. Mills, D. D., Montclair.

Monday Morning, April 30, 1917

CHILD WELFARE

Robert L. Flemming, Jersey City, Chairman

This meeting is called under the joint auspices of the State Conference and the New Jersey Child Labor and Welfare Committee. We desire to have full and free discussions at this session and all those present are free to discuss the papers after they are read. Before calling on the speakers, I wish to bring to your attention the fact that the war with Germany will make many changes in our way of life and throw great burdens on our citizens.

I have spent, since the beginning of the war, three months of each year in Canada and I watched very carefully the trend of events there and I think it necessary to warn those who are interested in children's work that they are about to face new conditions and that there should be no time wasted in preparing to meet them. The Canadians have handled a part of their child problems far better than the English and in a very simple way, by paying to his, the soldier's, wife in addition to his wages, \$30 a month for the support of the family so that she does not have to seek work and charity to support herself and children. But at first they did not do as well in solving their other problems. A wave of the patriotic enthusiasm swept over the country that brought together all those able to work or give financial help and societies started up all over the country to help the soldiers. This took away so much support from the charitable societies and institutions that many had to cease their work. Many large and important institutions like the Montreal Hospital were weakened financially, to such an extent that there was danger of closing their doors. This brought about a healthy reaction and a more just distribution of funds publicly subscribed. I tell you this so that those of you that are interested in children may prepare for the coming emergency which will require a strengthening and broadening of your work. You should take immediate steps to adjust your finances to meet the situation that will develop. You will need additional day nurseries to care for the children of mothers who will have to go to work. You should form commit-

tees to collect clothing and especially shoes and have some place where they can be repaired and made serviceable. I also believe it will be necessary to provide food at reasonable rates and committees must be formed to buy and attend to its distribution. The Child Labor problem will be one that will need very careful study and supervision. Many families will not have enough income to buy the necessities of life and will try to have their children work in order to make up the deficit. This problem might be solved by starting part time vocational schools under Chapter 242 of the Laws of 1916. We are face to face with a great emergency and I hope that the various child caring organizations will wake up and get ready to meet the situation. What is the use of raising large sums of money to care for the soldiers unless we can assure them that we are going to care for and protect their children while the fathers are fighting in our defence. I, therefore, beg of you to "come and do your bit" to protect and care for the children of the state.

THE ELEMENT OF PREVENTION IN CHILD WELFARE WORK

A. W. Abbott, Agent of The Children's Aid and Protective
Society of the Oranges

Seventeen years ago the word "Prevention" in child-saving work was almost unknown. "Punishment" was better known, and rescue was a word to win tears from the sympathetic and money from the philanthropic. To picture the horrible abuse and then show how the child was snatched from the wicked and landed in a flower bed of sunshine and happiness was the thing to do. It was in those days not child welfare so much as it was child rescue work that made the appeal. Children were ruthlessly snatched from their parents and homes were broken up, often for very little and insufficient cause, in order that the so-called Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, or the Children's Home Society, or the Humane Society, or whatever may have been its formal title could make a record of the number of children rescued, transferred or otherwise disposed of. It was, as we look upon it, little short of robbery, of home desecration, and it is not

to be wondered at that the methods of these societies then were met in many quarters by a strong opposition and antipathy. "Baby stealers" and "child robbers" were epithets applied to agents of such societies. Warm-hearted and kindly disposed people with the best of intentions thought they could find better homes for children than their own natural homes, and this idea persists. Only this year a court in the southern part of this state was asked to permit by court order a child to remain with its uncle because he had wealth and the father, who was petitioning to have his son restored to him, was poor. The uncle told the court he could give the boy a better home, better clothing and better school privileges than the father could. The judge did not waste much time in arriving at a decision. "The child is part of a family, and relative riches or relative poverty does not so much matter," said the judge, "the natural place for this boy is with his own people and he must be returned to his parents. Then, when he shall arrive at age of discretion, he may choose whether he will remain or go to his wealthy uncle."

I said at the outset that this now almost forgotten viewpoint was prevalent seventeen years ago. It was then that my experience began as agent of the Society I have the honor to represent, the Children's Aid and Protective Society of the Oranges. You will note that the people instrumental in the organization of that Society at that date had conceived of the idea of aid and prevention rather than rescue of children and demolition of homes.

A good many of the members of this Conference, I feel sure, know something about that beautiful community known as the Oranges. I think that you will agree with me that there is a sadness in the reflection that such a Society as this, was and is needed there and only recently within the past two years has a kindred organization been doing similar work in this beautiful cultured and refined town of Montclair, which is so splendidly entertaining the Conference at this time. But it may be added with equal force that there is a more than ordinary feeling of satisfaction in the knowledge that such a Society exists. That a child should need a champion is sad enough, but passing through the bounds of credibility is the fact that in the United States of America no less than nearly 200,000 children needed a friend in that capacity in the year 1916, of which number 756 lived in the Oranges and 278

parents came under the direct supervision of this Society. Facts are not only stubborn, they are often heart-breaking things.

Prevention is the Society's main feature. On that basis it has been conceived, designed and set up. On that side of its work its greatest good has been achieved. It is none the less real that it is the most seldom heard of. Many a father has gone to work to provide for his children rather than go to prison for neglecting them; and many a dirty, thriftless mother has started to clean her children and home when she has realized that failure to do this was something "in a manner likely to cause her some unnecessary suffering." When neither drink nor dirt were the contributing factors the same healthy fear of consequences has been known to stay the hand of brutality and cruelty and has secured immunity from the neglectful indifference of the selfish.

It is a simple matter of humane philosophy that we want what we cannot get and yet what really belongs to us. Child welfare workers are slowly learning that the way to rebuild a home is to make the home builders desire that very thing. We can build up pride of parental ownership in children easier than we can discourage parental obligations by condemnation and threats of punishment, or by the robbery of their children. The idea that neglectful parents will be robbed of their children if they do not properly care for them is often a most potent lever in lifting up such a family. They resent the idea of being robbed and they begin to try to prevent such a situation. When it becomes necessary to remove the children, then the work begins of impressing the parents that whenever they show indications of a desire to make a better home condition and prove it by subsequent events they shall have their children restored to them again. O, the heart-aches of the homes despoiled of children, or of the long and bitter efforts of grown children to find their own brothers and sisters, father and mother again! It is a sad page in our past history of child welfare work.

The Society believes more than ever before in its seventeen years of experience in our community, that the place for every child is in its own home, and each year a greater number of children are the better for this clearer understanding and yet we are far from reaching all the children who suffer injustice and cruel wrong at the hands of those under whose protection they are supposed to be, and to a very large degree the community remains

uninformed as to the methods adopted in carrying out the duty imposed upon us. The education of any community in the sad facts of its social life is a slow and difficult task, as we are too prone to think that all is for the best in the best of all possible worlds.

Are we not ready now to move along in our thinking from the child in the foster home or in the institution to the child in its own home—a home made over and reconstructed by a slow and patient service and neighborly helpfulness? Shall we not soon grasp the idea that we are not rescuing a child from a bad environment, but that we are removing a bad environment from the child? The rose in the hothouse is a thing of delicate beauty, but June roses blooming in the open air are of more worth, because they have blossomed in their natural place. Or we may take the illustration of the propaganda against tuberculosis. The first thought was to rescue the patient from his environment and place him in a sanatorium and we have built state and county sanatoriums and have spent much money upon them. Now we are learning that the dread disease is distinctly a disease of childhood and that to combat it with force we must remove the bad environment and save the child in his own home by introducing sunlight and better food and living conditions, and for this purpose we are sending to the child our visiting nurse and our health boards and our tenement house commission and our visiting housekeepers and what not, all for the purpose of preserving the home and preventing the home from harming the child.

The need of a child is its rallying point, the sorrows of a child its inspiration and the relief of a child its aim. Upon this broad platform the Society stands and accomplishes its beneficent work. It holds that a needless pain to a child should mean agony to the heart of a man, and no community should ever lose feeling for a child's sorrow. The instincts of the society must be with and for the children, for without this qualification it is powerless to effect real and permanent good. The society is not let loose on the community to disturb the peace of quiet homes, but it is expected to make inquiry into every case reported in which there is reason to believe a child is caused unnecessary suffering. In many homes the condition of life for the children is being changed, parental instinct is being cultivated and strengthened and filial affection is awakened. It claims rights for children and estab-

lishes them on a sure foundation in reformed homes, for hope for the child must spring from the home and it must be born in the heart of the parent.

While concern for the child is the society's first object, next in order comes the reform of the parent. Men and women are often chained to habit by circumstances. To set them free is to give them that liberty which is the eagle-wing of thought. Much of the neglect of children on the part of parents which has come to the society's attention may be ascribed as thoughtlessness. The satisfaction, therefore, that must be felt at the conclusions already reached by the study of the fact so far, is increased by the knowledge that warnings are becoming more and more effective. The informative as well as the reformatory value of the society's work in dealing with such parents is better judged by the number of warnings successfully made than by the prosecution undertaken, for if character is the hall-mark of manhood, then the restoration of that quality is of untold benefit to the community at large.

After all good as a society may be as a means to an end, it is the individual response to the individual need that floods the horizon with hope, and our appeal is one for personal service. This society needs to link up all the forces of sympathetic communication in every center of life until the claims of the children become the first charge in the intelligent interest of the whole community. Moreover, the scheme of the society goes further still, and seeks to instill this same spirit in the hearts of the very people amongst whom its work is done. Its mission is to teach neglectful parents that responsibility for the proper care and treatment of their children rests solely upon them. That the substitution of collective for individual responsibility is a mistake is believed by most of those who know the reforming influences of a good home. It is in a reformed home under the direction of reformed parents that children may learn the best of life's lesson of mutual help and forbearance, and it is there that they can be best fitted for the duties that will come to them in their turn when, in manhood and womanhood, they will be called upon to discharge the responsibilities of good citizenship. What cannot be set out in figures and tabulated in statistics is the change in such homes, the parents and its children. Of the good results accomplished the public very rarely, if ever, hear; it is only the sordid or tragic details of cases

disposed of in the local police courts that are reported in the public press.

The society's work of investigation of cases in its effort to ameliorate the sufferings of the deserted wife and children by a drunken and brutal father very frequently spreads all over the country. Very recently correspondence has been had with kindred societies in California in the West, Louisiana and Georgia in the South, Michigan in the North, and Maine and Massachusetts in the East. In several cases information has been recorded by personal service in co-operation with the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, London, England, as a result of which financial assistance has been secured for a mother and her children in temporary distress. Since the beginning of the society's new fiscal year, which dates from November 15, 1916, about fifty new cases of parental neglect of children have been brought to its attention as well as one hundred cases already on file which need constant supervision. During the past twelve months the society's agent has collected from parents for the support of their children the total sum of \$9,960.64, all of which requires constant book-keeping in the handling of it to see that the children secure the greatest benefit possible from it.

Not only is this method an important factor in our work, but we are firmly convinced that a still more forcible method of dealing with delinquent and neglectful parents is the fact that many instances fathers who have heretofore failed to properly and adequately support their families are turning over nearly all their week's wages to their wives for the support of the home. During the past year men who are capable of earning \$18 per week are paying at least \$16 to their wives regularly for the support of the family, while before complaint was made to the society were in the habit of spending most of their earnings in the saloons and gambling the money away. In such cases the society has knowledge that during the past year men who failed to pay more than \$5 per week for the support of their families are now collectively contributing \$40 to \$50 per week, are not drinking and weekly reports to the society by their wives are "that if they had only known what peace and comfort they are now enjoying they would have called the society's attention to the matter long ago."

During the past two years the greatest factor in Child Wel-

fare Work has been Chapter 246 of the laws of 1915, which is "An Act Concerning the Welfare of Children," approved April 8, 1915. This law is practically the last word in Child Welfare work. It has been endorsed by child-saving experts throughout the country and Mr. C. C. Carstens, General Secretary of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, has declared that this law can be used as a model for the rest of the country. At the National Conference of Charities and Correction, held at Indianapolis last May, it was stated beyond contradiction that so far as this Child Welfare Act is concerned, New Jersey stands pre-eminent in safe-guarding the life of the child. The law defines abuse, abandonment, cruelty and neglect of a child so minutely that it is not necessary to ask questions as to its meaning. In the experience of the Society in the Oranges it has surpassed all expectations. In many instances we have given a copy of the law to neglectful parents, asking them to read it over carefully, giving them a week's time to ponder over its contents, all of which has resulted beneficially to parent and children alike. We have been able to cut our court cases about 75 per cent., so that during these past two years not more than 5 per cent. of the parents we have had to deal with were committed to penal institutions. In the year 1916, under court order, nine parents contributed \$1,613.75 to the Society for the support of their children, while 48 parents of their own voluntary act without court proceedings contributed \$8,346.89. These figures speak for themselves and show the splendid work which has been accomplished when the law of 1915 has been made effective. Another factor in our prevention work is the fact that we can say with a great deal of satisfaction and pride that during the past four years the Children's Aid and Protective Society of the Oranges has not taken one child away from its parents and has not placed a single child in that time in any institution.

New Jersey is a common law state, and its legal procedure in many respects differs from that of our neighboring states, because of the common law practice and court decisions. The New Jersey courts have by many decisions exploded the old idea that parents have a property right in their children. It has exploded the idea that the parents have private rights in children over which the state has no authority to control. New Jersey court decisions have repeatedly declared that every child is a ward of

the state, and it is the duty of the state to safeguard and protect the welfare of the child, and it is upon this theory that the new child welfare act of New Jersey makes its claim of being one of the most advanced pieces of legislation on child welfare known in this country. Further than that, although New Jersey is not a suffrage state, the fact remains that our courts have always ruled that the mother is generally a safer person to have custody of the child than the father, and there is an old law on the statute books which gives the mother preference over the father to a child under seven years of age, and our courts continually award the child to the custody of the mother as against the father. But the best feature of the New Jersey court decisions is that the courts do not hesitate to award the custody of the child to others than the parents if the welfare of the child warrants this action. Prevention does not mean separation, it does not mean breaking up homes, it does not mean bringing parents before the courts or taking their earnings away from them which are needed for the child, or locking a man up or divorcing the father from the mother in the care of the child. These are punishments which may be applied when other means fail, but the element of prevention today in child welfare work method means to avoid all these things. It means that we should be willing in our work to follow the example of Him who took the little children up in His arms and blessed them and said "Suffer the little children to come unto Me, for of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

THE CHAIRMAN: Is there any discussion of this paper?

- DR. FREDERICK B. CARTER, *Montclair*: One of the many good points of the paper, it seemed to me, was the fact of the fine results obtained by the work, and I suppose that is what we are all here to hear. I was very much struck by the statement that unfortunately the public knows nothing about the cases which are helped, but only gets the sordid facts of the miserable cases reported in the newspapers. If that is true, why is it not possible for this great society to remedy that? We are all relying on publicity in these days to do almost everything, and there could be no better publicity than these good results. Is there no way these good results could be brought before the community? I suppose such a society as this could at least control the situation in the neighborhood. I cannot imagine that the papers in the Oranges or Montclair or even the papers in Newark would not

be only too happy to have such cases recorded. I should like to know if this is not possible.

THE CHAIRMAN: You will find that unfortunately "news" generally consists of "bad news," so to speak. The newspapers want something first and foremost where there can be no "come-back" and insist on some record they can protect themselves with in case of question as to accuracy. Therefore, they are loth to use any story without actual records. Another reason is a more personal one. I find in my work in rehabilitating a family that the family does not want even a personal friend to know about it, and you cannot, therefore, put facts about such a case in the paper without its being possibly read in the neighborhood, and that might easily undo all the work we are trying to do. That is one point we have been very careful about in this family work. We are handling a sacred matter and we cannot be too careful in concealing the fact that the family is in trouble and what we are doing for it, because one person's getting hold of that scandal, so to speak, may make an absolute failure of the case. I think that is one very great reason why the stories of these cases are not published. We can give out monthly reports, but newspapers do not find these exciting enough. They want "human interest stuff" that they can spread out and make "yellow."

MRS. CUSHING: Mr. Abbott spoke of the Child Welfare Law of 1915. I want to say that downstairs you will find pamphlets regarding all laws relating to children in New Jersey, compiled under the direction of a committee, the work done by Mrs. Stoningham. It seems to me very valuable.

THE CHAIRMAN: Perhaps the price is too high—it is fifteen cents.

MRS. CUSHING: Considering war conditions, perhaps we might sell it for ten cents. (Laughter.)

MR. J. C. STOCK: I was not engaged in social work at the time Mr. Abbott began, seventeen years ago, so I do not know from personal experience the conditions that prevailed at that time. I have heard it said that a number of years ago child-caring agencies were classified as home-breakers, and I guess the charge as made was true, but I do not think that charge applies now to any organization doing local or state-wide work on behalf of children.

We have come to see that the parents have prior claim, but

there are certain circumstances and conditions in homes and in child life that require drastic action, and demand for the safety of the child or children and society that the law step in and break up the home. The organization which I represent does not do it until it has tried out every other means of constructive work in the home in order that the parents may keep the care of their children and the children remain in their natural environment.

While Mr. Abbott was speaking there came to my mind a particular case in which I was interested three years ago. I was the unfortunate instrument in breaking up a home. It involved three children, the youngest of a family of fourteen being about four years old. I think you will best understand the circumstances of the family life if I relate to you a little incident that occurred. A benevolent society of the city in which this family lived had aided the particular family as well as other members of it. Two ladies of the organization met on the street one day about the time the children were removed by the court, and discussing the case, one of them said, "Is it not the case that this family has been aided by our organization for the past sixty years?" "No," said the other, "a thousand years." That is, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant, this family was always being helped; there are criminals, and prostitutes, and delinquents, and deficient in the family, and have been for three generations. The little boy is living not far from here now, the older girl with curvature of the spine which our society was finally able to correct, is also near here, both in good homes.

That is a case where there was only one salvation for the children, and that was breaking up the home and placing them in new and wholesome environment. I am in hearty accord with what Mr. Abbott has said, but there does come a time when surgical operation is necessary, and when that time does come it takes a good deal of grace sometimes and a lot of grit to carry it through. But we must use the surgeon's knife when the time comes to use it, and use it fearlessly.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Honorable John Warren has had experience in child-caring work, and also in sitting on the bench and seeing us uplifters in action. I think his viewpoint will be interesting, and I know while he was judge we were able to accomplish results in Jersey City that we had never been able to accomplish before. And his work was so well done that it is

still going on under his successor. I think we have a system in our municipal court that will make it very hard for antis to beat us, and politicians are playing fair with us. I have great pleasure in introducing the Honorable John Warren, of Jersey City.

HOW FAMILY PROBLEMS CAN BE SOLVED BY THE MUNICIPAL COURT

Address by the Honorable John Warren, Jersey City

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I have been asked to speak on a subject which could occupy a day's time in telling you. It is a hard subject to condense. I want to impress upon you the importance particularly of the municipal court, the magistrate's court, the police court as it is sometimes called, and in your country districts the court of the Justice of the Peace.

In Jersey City we have two such courts, and ten to twelve thousand cases go through each court every year. They go through with great dispatch. There are not a great many lawyers and consequently the cases are not much retarded (laughter). I am a lawyer myself, but I can truthfully say that in not one per cent. of the cases is a lawyer needed; they are only obstructionists and most of the men in the practice of the police courts do not do any good for their clients.

I want to impress on you the class of cases handled in the police court. All of them have a bearing on family relations, assaults and batteries, abandonment, cases of non-support, drunkenness, disorderly conduct, school cases where parents are brought in for not sending their children to school, health board cases, etc. There is hardly a case that comes up before the court in which the family element does not have to be considered by the court. Do not mistake me. I do not mean that the question of family relations is considered in each particular case. What I do mean is that the consideration of family affairs, the relation and position in the life of every person who is convicted in that court, must be considered by the judge if he is going to do complete justice. It is not like an ordinary assault and battery case between two men, or a man found drunk; the judge cannot just find him guilty or not guilty and send him to prison or not accord-

ingly. If he is going to do justice, not only to the man, but to the family, he must go into the details of the family to ascertain whether justice will be done by sending him to jail or by fining him, or whether it would work great hardship and injustice on the man's wife or children. I can truthfully say I have spent more time after a case has been tried, trying to find out what I should do with a man, than in trying him.

And it is the essential job of the judge to do this very thing. It is not a thing laid down by law, it is a thing that can only be done by efforts of the individual judge according to the light he has; and in order to do complete justice in that court it is necessary to have a man there who looks on that position not merely as a political job where he will do as little work as possible to get the salary, but a man who is imbued with the spirit of justice to try and work out the affairs of the people before him so that, instead of tearing down, he may, with the help of the probation officers, social workers and churches, build up a man and his family.

When I got into that court I found out a number of things that did not meet my fancy or the fancy of my good friends, Mr. Flemming, Mr. Stevens, and those with whom I was interested in welfare work. I found a man would go out on Saturday night with his pay envelope and not go home at all. When he was found, sometimes no money was left at all, sometimes only a small proportion of his wages was left. But his wife was home, and his children were home. If the court held him over, it often meant the loss of his job. You know what a serious thing that it for a man making \$2.50 or \$3.00 a day, to lose his job, or even to lose a day's work.

So we established what perhaps has no official being, but has worked out all right, nobody having questioned the legality of it; we established a Sunday court. In that Sunday court, which sits, not at the police court, but in the police station, are taken up the cases of the people who are arrested and whom the police and the judge may think are in such position that if they were held over to be tried on the following day their families would suffer, that they would lose their job, or lose a day's work, which would mean no meat for the family that week or no pair of shoes for the child that was needing them. This court has done a lot of good work, and we have been able to reach men

through it by showing them what we were trying to do for them and their families.

Another thing we found. There were a lot of petty squabbles in neighborhoods. Or a man would be disputing about a piece of personal property. The complaint would come into the court, a warrant would be issued for the man and he would be arrested and he must get bail. That thing was stopped—the free issuance of warrants. There was a business man in Jersey City who was a partner with a man in an invention. One man took the model to his home, and the other got out a warrant for petty larceny against him. Take a poor man and get him off his job on a petty complaint, and it is a serious thing. He is taken off his job, tried the following day, which means the loss of two days' work, even if he does not lose his job. So we established a night court, which sits once a week. A man goes into this court, wants a warrant and states a good ground of complaint. A summons is issued to try out the case on next Monday night. Very often it occurs that a man has a complaint made against him when he is not guilty. Under the old way this would put him back for weeks. The result is that we had a great many cases every Monday night (Wednesday now). People would rather stay and have their cases done with that night than have it adjourned to the day court, and I have sat until three o'clock in the morning in that court by consent of everybody in each case who desired to have the case tried in the night court rather than have it adjourned to the day court. As people interested in the family conditions of the community, we ought to endeavor to get Sunday courts and night courts in every municipality. I am not talking of the probation system; it is an excellent thing; thank God that we have it. However, instead of turning people over entirely to the probation officer, a system was worked out by Mr. Stevens whereby, instead of suspending sentence and putting them in the care of the probation officer, we postponed sentence and paroled them in his custody for three months. If conduct was good we suspended sentence, but the judge kept control of the case and was cognizant of it until things were corrected.

That worked out splendidly. You know when a man is put on probation he is on parole for three years. There is practically no incentive for him to do better, for he knows he cannot get-off. By this system he has placed before him the proposition that he

must work, he must refrain from drunkenness, he must treat his family right, very often he must go to church; or else, if there is no improvement at the end of the month he will be sentenced. The result has been he works hard to get that degree of perfection where the judge would discharge him. You give a man something to work for and you will generally get better results. The thing has worked out so well in the police court that it has been adopted by two judges of the Common Pleas Court, who now sit at night and very often suspend sentence instead of putting on probation. You cannot do that, of course, without the help of the probation office.

Three elements, or causes, in this family work must be considered at all times.

First, drunkenness. Ninety per cent. of the cases, I think, are either directly or indirectly due to drunkenness. I am not a prohibition advocate, but I have been almost a temperance advocate since I have been in that court. In reference to drunkenness I have used one lever, that is, the Church. I do not know anything much more effective in keeping men straight than the Church, and I do not care what church it is. The trouble with most of the ministers and priests in the Church is that they do not know their people; they do not know the necessities of their people, and when they have a case they do not know how to work with it. If a man leaves one parish and moves into another there is no follow-up system to see that he keeps up, so when he gets to a new parish he is liable to slip back. Some men have a great fear of the minister or priest. I have made men take the pledge and watched them go to the saloon next morning. But I have sent a man to a minister or priest and made him take the pledge before that man who represented God in his idea and who to his thinking would hurt him in his religious life if he did not keep the pledge, and I have found it worked. That is the funny part about a good many of these apparently little things; they work. You don't simply tell the man to go to the minister and leave it to him to do it; you must have the minister or the priest write you a letter about it, and then get monthly reports from the minister or priest as to how the man is doing. This requires the co-operation of the clergy as well as the welfare societies.

I have often found, too, where husband and wife have been

bickering, squabbling and arguing, that they have not been in a church for a long time. I have called up their minister and told him that I was going to send him Mr. and Mrs. So-and-So, saying, "I want you to take care of them. I thing such and such a thing is the trouble. I want to know if they go to you, because if they do not I will send a policeman after them." With the ministers' help we often get people back in the church, and I have had them come back and say to me, "Mr. Warren, I have not known what happiness was for ten years till I got back into my church and felt I was right with God." I am not a preacher, you know, but I am telling you as a practical man the effect of religion on family life. It is a thing that everybody interested in social work has got to deal with. (Applause.)

I have been a social worker myself, and still am to a certain extent, though Bob Flemming is hogging all the work. But I know the work, have been interested in it a long time, have gone out with Mr. Flemming and others and tried to reconstruct families, and so I know about it.

You have to get the right man as judge in your municipality. You cannot reconstruct everybody that comes along, but you have to get the right man as judge. You do not need a learned man. I do not know whether I care whether he is a lawyer or not. But he has to have good horse sense, and he must not look on his position simply as a job. Then don't wait till the breaking point has come to bring the case into court. We are always inclined to do that, but sometimes it happens that by the time you get it into court there is no chance of saving it. Sometimes by getting it a little sooner you might, if you had the right kind of judge, by paroling a man in custody of the pastor or one of the welfare societies or probation officers, get results. Think of the municipal court as a clearing house. It is in that court, as I have observed it, that the bad habits are thrown off and virtues taken on. It can only be done by the help of the judge and the welfare workers. They must get together and work. The judge must understand their work; there must be the feeling on the part of the social workers that when they take a case into court they have done all that anybody possibly could do up to that point. Very often the judge will have an insight and point of view that the person who has been working close to it for a year will not have. Don't be mad if the judge does not send your

man away; don't feel injured if he does not break up the home. And, if you have the right kind of judge, you will get the right kind of results. Don't forget to keep in mind that the religion of every man will help him keep straight. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I am right glad that Mr. Warren has talked the way he has. I think it is a message that wants to go all over the State, and I can assure you he has only told about ten per cent. of the story and of the practical results that have come through his efforts in Jersey City, which have been most remarkable. We are apt to look for big things in family regeneration, and in consequence we fail. In Jersey City, in my own work, it is generally some little scrap, perhaps, that may have occurred years ago, that is at the root of the trouble. In one case it was a fight of eight years' standing, and not till that fight was finally settled could I get the people to live in any kind of decency or order. You have to get into the family and work with your judge if you are going to secure results, and if we follow the advice of the speaker last evening and get a little more into politics and get the co-operation—and, what is more, get the politicians to fear us, we shall be able to get the right judges. We have the votes now, but we don't know how to use them. We must see to it that we have the right judges, especially in our lower courts. It is all very well to appoint great men to the Supreme Courts. But they do not have contact with the poor people. The judges in the police courts do have that contact. In Jersey City there are more money judgments in the District Courts than in all the Supreme Courts. Astonishing, but true! The police courts are the foundation of our justice, the courts in which these people are to get their rights, and unless we are sufficiently alive to see that the proper people are appointed to these courts, there will not be justice.

MR. ABBOTT: I wish we could have Judge Warren in the Oranges. If he will come to Orange to live within the next two years we will try to get him appointed. We would dearly love to have a man on the bench like Judge Warren. And anybody in this audience would like to have such a man on the bench in his police court. We have a case on record during the last two weeks—parents and two children. Boy eighteen years old, just graduated from high school, because of the mother's keeping him at high school she had to keep on at work to help support him

and his sister of thirteen, who will graduate from grammar school this June—a ne'er-do-well father and husband. This has been going on for years, probably twenty years, that he has been in this good-for-nothing, drunken condition. He has been before the court, committed, his fines having been paid for his drunkenness by the saloon-keepers. We had the man arrested as a last resort and sent to Caldwell in January for one year. Our judge then, without the knowledge and consent of the society, without the knowledge and consent of the wife, liberated that man from jail, and the individual who went to Caldwell and wrote his name on the discharge book getting the man out was the bartender of the saloon where this man drank his liquor.

That is the condition we have in Orange. I was glad now of an opportunity to tell this Conference about it.

MRS. MARGARET CHICKERING, *of Moorestown*: We have a wonderful judge, Judge Lippincott. In any of our problems we can get help from him. I can lay down the law to a man and send him to the judge and he will talk to him in his home. The man generally gets pretty well straightened out.

MISS NELLIE SLAYBACK, *State Department of Labor, Trenton*: I would like to emphasize Mr. Warren's point in regard to religious influence in the reform of a man. I knew an insurance man, an agent, who was a great thief. Never was his book correct. The cause was drink. After the man had gone almost through hell, and the family through starvation, he came back to the agent and asked for a place again, giving his word of honor that he would be honest, and he was reinstated in the inspection force. After a few weeks there was a discrepancy in his books. The agent, knowing I knew something of the family of this thief, came to me, and we discussed the affair from a practical standpoint. He suggested that the man should make a pledge before his priest. He did. The priest went before the altar and in most solemn conclave the man made that pledge, and it has worked now for about a year and a half; during that time the man has been perfectly honest, and his accounts straight; he is not drinking, and I believe with Mr. Warren that in our affairs, industrial and social, the religious element is too much neglected and that if it were more emphasized results would be greater.

JUDGE WARREN: One of the essential things we have to deal with is the education of the child. We have had a good deal

of trouble in Jersey City, where we have a large poor population, in keeping the child in school. If we fine a person five or ten dollars for not sending the child to school it does not work, sending them to the juvenile court does not work, suspending sentence in the police court does not work. So we devised this scheme. People come in and say, "We need the child at home," or "we can't make him go to school," and it is evident they cannot pay a large fine. "Well," we say, "you are guilty; you can go home and take the child, but for every child you do not send to school you have to pay a fine of 25 cents or 50 cents (as the case may be, according to the family circumstances)." That plan has worked in Jersey City and Bayonne.

THE CHAIRMAN: I have a telegram from Dr. Faulkner, who should at this time have given us an address on "Medical Inspection in Rural Schools," explaining his enforced absence on account of military service.

MR. C. L. STONAKER, *Secretary of New Jersey State Charities Aid Association*: I would like to tell you what Dr. Faulkner is doing, as he is not here to tell his own story. He is in South Jersey organizing the medical service in school districts over which he has control. You, who live in Montclair, the Oranges, Newark, Jersey City, Atlantic City and Trenton, know something of medical inspection of schools, but if you know nothing about rural schools, I will tell you that children in the farming districts, going to country schools, have mighty little medical inspection either in the schools or in the homes, and they are just as much entitled to it as the children in the big city schools; they have the eye strain and the adenoids and all these things just the same. Dr. Faulkner was asked to be the medical inspector of the schools of Vineland. He became so very much interested in it that he put metropolitan ideas into the town, and then he began to say to himself, "If I could throw away my private practice and do this medical inspection how happy I should be!" He went to another town and asked if they would like a medical inspector of schools, and he made a contract for \$100 to go once or twice a week, and has gone from school district and town until he has something like fifteen or eighteen school districts and five or six towns—which makes a budget of \$3,000 or \$4,000 for him. He employs several nurses, runs a card index system, classifying everything. He goes into a school and examines every child care-

fully as in the cities, makes a card record, sends a nurse down to see if the parents have done what was ordered. If the child needs glasses the child goes home to the farm with the formula. Two weeks later the nurse finds the child is without the glasses. She goes out to the farm, and asks why? "Oh, I'll get them sometime when I get time to go into Philadelphia," says the father, "I understand you can get them at Woolworth's for ten cents." "I will send that child to the hospital if necessary, if you don't get the glasses," says the nurse, and the glasses are usually secured. It is that kind of patient work that is saving the health of many a child. Epidemics of typhoid and measles and other things are being checked, and now in his third year, fifteen or eighteen districts and small towns are having the benefit of this scientific work, with nurses doing social work in the rural families. I wish I had time to tell you more in detail. But if you are ever in Vine-land, try and spend half an hour with Dr. Faulkner and see what wonderful records he has there. He is studying them all the time, and ministering to the needs of the people of rural districts with just as much skill and enthusiasm as is being given in the best medical inspections in our large cities.

THE CHAIRMAN: In handling our children's laws in New Jersey, we have great difficulty on account of the centralized population in two first-class counties and sparsely settled districts in other parts of the State, and a law practicable for Essex and Hudson may be very difficult of enforcement in other parts of the State. We have tried to meet these problems to some extent, and many social workers in these second-class counties are doing a splendid work that should be recognized and is very little known in this part of the State. One county that deserves special recognition is Monmouth, and Miss G. L. Button will tell us something about that.

MISS G. L. BUTTON: I ask your indulgence, for I am speaking quite without preparation, and on three minutes' notice. But I will try to tell you briefly what we are hoping to do for the children in Monmouth County. One thing we noticed five years ago was that there were altogether too many children not in school; many not even enrolled. Some were never in school at all, and others so irregularly that they were getting practically no education. They stayed in school in this occasional way until they were of the legal age to leave, then dropped out barely able

to read and write. So one of the first things we worked for was a county supervisor of attendance in order that all the children of school age might be in school. In one or two towns we were able to get a school census, but the county attendance officer, when she came, had to work largely without such a census. In many districts one had not been taken for ten years. The law makes it obligatory for all districts to have an attendance or truant officer; but the appointments are merely nominal in many cases, and little time is devoted to the duties of the office. The county officer has for three years been building up an esprit de corps among these attendance officers, and working with the local superintendents and school boards. Her salary for these three years was paid by one of the members of the Monmouth County Branch of the State Charities Aid Association; her traveling expenses by the county, and she worked under the direction of the county superintendent of schools with full authority as a school official. Last winter supplementary legislation was passed making such an office a permanent part of the school system, and from now on the work will be continued by the county supervisor as assistant to the county superintendent, with salary, as well as expenses, paid from the school funds of the county itself.

When we went into the schools we found that of the children who did go to school an unduly large proportion were three or more years below grade. We wanted to know definitely and clearly why this was, so we employed a trained psychologist, who spent two years in the public schools of the county, making a study of the children who were three or more years below grade. Some of them she found below grade because of foreign parentage, or irregular school attendance, ill-health or physical defects, or bad home conditions, and a large proportion because of mental defects which made it impossible for them to profit by the regular courses of the public schools. After she finished this study she went from us to try out her ideas for two years as supervising principal of three rural townships, and in these townships has been able to demonstrate practically what can be done for these misfit children who are not keeping up with the grades, and many of whom are unable to do so. The last legislature passed a bill authorizing the appointment of a county supervisor of exceptional children, and we hope that our former children's agent is going to work out a county plan for the supervision, care

and instruction of this large group of children who are not keeping pace with the procession. She also is to work as an assistant to the county superintendent of schools.

As this work has been taken over by the school system of the county we have another children's agent taking up another phase of children's work. As you all know, the widows' pension law passed two or three years ago in New Jersey carries with it a very inadequate appropriation for the administration of these pensions. The State Board of Children's Guardians does not have a fund large enough to pay agents to make visits to families of widows who are receiving pensions six times a year as required by law. They can get around to each family once or twice a year at most, in addition to making the initial investigations required by law. We have undertaken for our county to supervise for the State Board the families of widows receiving pensions, of whom there are about one hundred in our county. The State Board remains officially in charge, and comes down once or twice a year, as usual, but in the interval our agent takes charge of the families, calling frequently where there are difficulties and making occasional friendly visits where everything is going well.

Taking thought on the health side, we have put in a county public health nurse who, we hope, is going to do for the children, in co-operation with the medical inspectors and local nurses (where there are any of these), all those things you have heard of as being so much needed by the children in rural districts; the children who get so little medical care and the mothers who get so little instruction in the care and upbringing of their children. Two years ago a public health nurse made for us a survey of health conditions in our county. One mother whom she went to talk with told her when the nurse tried to find out why she had lost her baby, that her sister's baby had been sick too, but she lived in a city and took it to a milk station, where she got the advice of a nurse, and her baby lived. "My baby died because I had no one to tell me what to do," she said.

There is another thing we want to do for the children in the country. We are working for their education—that every child shall have the sort of education it is capable of; we are working for their health; we are beginning to work for the widowed mother and her family, but besides these things we want

to see that all the children are provided with wholesome recreation.

In so far as we deal with children in the courts we do it in the course of our regular work for families in their homes. When we find a situation beyond our power to remedy we, of course, have to go into court. Our agent does not act as complainant in any instance, but finds someone who is sufficiently interested to bring the necessary charges, and then we help to get the required evidence; but only as a last resort is a family broken up.

We want just as rapidly as we can to reduce the amount of court work and think that by doing these preventive things—keeping the children in school, giving them school work that will interest them, keeping them well and strong and providing them with wholesome recreation, a smaller and smaller number of them will for any reason be taken into our courts. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: In the course of Mr. Abbott's address he spoke of its being unfortunate that so much money should have to be spent on our large institutions for those suffering from tuberculosis, largely a disease of children, so that if children could be taken proper care of in the homes, the large institutions would be unnecessary. But in the case of a county such as ours, where there are so many advanced cases without large sanitoriums, we should be unable to protect the children.

MR. STONAKER: In some counties of this state there are an unusual number of towns with police magistrates and judges who find it the easiest thing to do is to send a man who has been repeatedly before him for a long term to jail. One such man was sent to the Paterson jail for two years, which is one of the most horrible jails in the world. A woman came into the sheriff's office and said, "Mr. Sheriff, I have eight children, what am I going to do with these children, and that man in jail for a year or two years? He has got a job at three dollars a day that he can come back to and support the children and me—and the judge has sent him to jail."

That man had been repeatedly going to jail for twenty, thirty, sixty days, but this time the justice of the peace got tired and said he would send him for a year.

To meet such a situation as this we secured this year the passage of a law, and I want you to tell your judges about that. When a man under such circumstances as I have told of goes to

jail for a year, upon the petition of the sheriff, or the recommendation of the sheriff, the judge can parole the man, letting him go to his job, and telling him, "We will collect the money for your work and turn it over to the family. You can go in and sleep at the jail; you don't get any money, but you will work at your job, or if you have not got any job we will find you one, and the money goes to your family—and you don't get any for booze." All that is needed is a little bit of social agitation to make this law work.

MR. FLEMMING: I would make that a little more general. You will find when the cases come up and you consult your judge or prosecutor they will tell you there is no law affecting that particular case in the State of New Jersey. What they really mean is that they do not know the law, and I want to urge on every one of you that you follow the advice of Mrs. Cushing and do not leave this building without buying one of those books that she spoke of, and then you will be able to tell your prosecutors and judges that there is a law and you are going to have it enforced. I think every one of you should take that book and read it and study it, and it will give you the law and all charitable and eleemosynary acts of the State. It is the first time in the State of New Jersey that these laws have ever been brought together and put in pamphlet form. It is a very small book, and in that book you have the weapon with which to meet a great many cases and something which will solve a great many conundrums and riddles that have been bothering you for years, and after you have bought it and read it you will find it one of the best investments you ever made. It is called "A Guide to the Laws of New Jersey Relating to Children."

SPEAKER: And it has been reduced to ten cents for the purposes of this Conference. (Laughter.)

MRS. CUSHING, *Chairman of the Child Labor and Welfare Committee*: It is not the fault of Mr. Flemming that the question of child labor was not brought into this program. At the time the program was made up the chairman was unable to be present at the meeting of the committee and the subject of child labor was therefore not suggested.

But war has been declared, and our children are in danger. I come to you to-day to plead that there shall be no breaking down of laws relating to children in this State or in this country,

neither in our compulsory education laws nor in the laws relating to industry. Probably you all value them, but none so much as the little band of people who thirteen years ago formed the New Jersey Child Labor Committee in co-operation with the National Child Labor Committee.

There is a danger in regard to the call of children to go on to farms. Let us guard against that danger. There have been already projects for sending city children from fourteen to sixteen to farms. The National Child Labor Committee has taken great pains to interview farmers and see whether they desire city children to go and work on their farms. Some farmers who should not be entrusted with boys of fourteen want them; those who understand the conditions know that city children of fourteen working on a farm are a nuisance. Consulting with the Secretary of Labor, with the National Organization of Boy Scouts, with the Commissioner of Education of New York State, with the Commissioner of Education of New York City, the National Child Labor Committee has compiled a leaflet which is very valuable, showing how the education of a child of fourteen to sixteen may be carried on in the country. But let us protest against any breaking down of compulsory education laws or of laws for which we stand and have stood for so many years, to defend our children in industry.

The attack has already begun in New York. A bill introduced by E. Brown was passed last Saturday, which will break down the laws of New York, because it is impossible that the Labor Commission can investigate every request that is made, and we shall probably see again in New York State the situation that was overcome last year of little children of seven and eight years old working in canneries, and women being overworked. I beseech you all in behalf of the women of the State to use your influence that there be no breaking down of laws for their protection.

We are willing to take the experience of England with regard to preparation for war. Let us take her experience with regard to the effects on children. Schools in England are almost deserted; they have been turned into hospitals. Sir James Foxhall said in Parliament: "A large portion of our elementary school system is in ruins." The same writer goes on to state that while the situation is not as pitiful and pathetic as that in Louvain, it

is practically the same thing as far as the public school system is concerned. We know that the delinquency in England in seventeen large cities has increased forty per cent. because of unrest and lack of supervision of parents. Let us not repeat the mistakes of England with regard to our women and children.

MISS MILLER, *of Newark*: I most heartily appreciate what Mrs. Cushing has said, having heard Mr. Lovejoy on Saturday, and I would like to ask her through you, Mr. Chairman, whether this Conference should not go on record protesting against the kind of work which I am afraid is going to be inaugurated by the school authorities, sending out groups of children unsupervised into the country districts under the guise of patriotic endeavor.

THE CHAIRMAN: Under the Conference rules resolutions are not approved of, so that I am not able to entertain that suggestion.

DR. HALLOWELL, *of Vineland*: There is a very important problem that will have to come up to the Conference in the care of the children of munition workers, especially in rural districts. Probably the cities have this in hand. In rural districts where there are munition factories, even in normal times, the medical, educational and hygienic condition of the children and the homes and mothers has been appalling. I had the privilege of riding on the train with Dr. Faulkner to Camden, and he said he wished I would meet him some time and go down to these districts with him. People would be astounded, he said, at the neglect, the absolute neglect of these children. I know I may say in the name of Dr. Faulkner that if you would like to know of these conditions and would write him he would be delighted to take you in his motor tour which he takes every week through that district. The people in local communities are unable to take care of the problem and need help from the outside.

MRS. SLAYBACK: From supervision of the plants in the northern part of the State I feel that that is a South Jersey condition. I do not think it prevails in the northern districts. The homes are being well maintained, and in many cases they are the younger members of the family, among the women, who are employed. I have never in my life seen such perfect cleanliness as prevails in the munitions plants in the northern part of this State. The DuPont plant is immaculate. For their own safety

there must be nothing by which the smallest bit of friction could cause ignition. I found bathrooms, shower baths, a more than legal allowance of basins, the eight-hour law prevailing, and everything that could be desired in the DuPont plant, and the same in the International. The conditions must be much worse in the southern districts.

DR. HALLOWELL: I was not speaking of the plants, but of the conditions in the homes, chiefly of the aliens. This may not even be in the munition grounds; it is the families of the munition workers I was speaking of.

MR. FLEMMING: Personally I would be very glad to have the conference on child labor adjourned till such time as we could take up these subjects. We shall have a conference in South Jersey, at Burlington, soon. I think it would be well to consider these matters of family relationship at that time.

Monday Afternoon, April 30, 1917

HEALTH AND HOUSING

W. L. Kinkead, Paterson, Chairman

THE CHAIRMAN: As Dr. Edsall was sent away by his physician this morning, being ill, we shall have to forego his talk, and I will try to fill in a little of his time.

The general subject for this afternoon is Housing and Health. The housing end of it here is practically represented by the speaker. All the other speakers on the afternoon's program are more particularly interested in the health than the housing side, and when the Program Committee for this session met there were two health officers and one housing man. I chanced to be the housing man. The other two were both larger in physique than I am, and apparently they outvoted the housing end. In speaking of housing conditions, it seems to me not out of place at this time to recall just for a moment where this State was fifteen years ago. Fifteen years ago we had no tenement house law, but some of the ladies in Orange found the need of such a law, found a man who also saw that need; that man has now, unfortunately for us, passed on. I refer to Captain Allen. All of us who knew him knew he was a power, and he carried through a big work for this State.

The tenement house laws that have come on to our statute books were copied, unfortunately, from the books of New York State. The situation to-day is much the same in that respect. New York State is at the present time debating whether they will not make a step backward; I sincerely hope that New Jersey will not make a step backward, too. We made a step forward this year when we secured the several amendments to the law, and there can be no more changes for a year; but it is an unfortunate thing that we seem to feel in this State somehow that we have to copy the laws of New York State instead of being leaders. When our tenement house law was passed all the good features were put in that were dared, but not all that might have been put in. I am not criticising the law, because we got what we could get; it was a wonderful thing, and if the ladies of Orange and the Governor, who backed it, and others, had not done so,

we might not have been where we are to-day. There were few local ordinances fifteen years ago that had any bearing on housing; to-day we have a goodly number in all of our larger cities. The housing side has only come into its own in the last fifteen years in this State.

This State is one of the few States that have housing associations. In fact, there are only three in the Union. Ours was really the first to thoroughly organize and incorporate. We did not know this at the time, but Mrs. Albion Fellows Bacon, of Indiana, told me that. So New Jersey has been a leader in this. At the Philadelphia Conference on National Housing the first move was made to do something. We have not had a secretary during the past year, but hope to have one who will be a live wire shortly. We are in touch with him now, and believe the association will profit greatly.

I want to emphasize just a moment the feeling there has been throughout the country that people contract disease in houses that have been infected by various diseases, particularly tuberculosis. A thorough study has been made and it is found that the tendency by contact to contract tuberculosis comes much more from individual touch than from the dwelling. Tuberculosis workers in the past have thought that the dwelling had a great deal to do with it, but it has been proved by study that it is only a very small percentage. The dwelling must be right, however, or you will still have the probability of tuberculosis.

I want to speak of what we are spending on housing—less than 2 cents per capita. Our population is about three million; in 1885 it was only one and a half million. We have almost doubled in population, but are still spending a very small proportion of money on housing betterment.

For health matters we spend $4\frac{4}{5}$ cents per capita through our health departments. We are spending about 7 cents toward the conservation of people, therefore. We have looked after animals, the bees, etc., but human beings are only now coming in for consideration.

Surgeon General Rupert Blue has said that the average paid to health officers throughout the United States is \$300. I asked the Health Department what New Jersey was doing, and found something like this:

Group	Salary	Average
7 full time	\$2,000 up	\$2,600
10-6 " " 4 part	1,500-\$2,000	1,647
8-5 " " 3 "	1,000- 1,500	1,236

Then a very large group who receive from nothing to \$1,000, whose average would probably be about \$300. I am speaking of the licensed and qualified health officers, not inspectors who have a right to do work of that kind.

Then I want to say a few words about tuberculosis, not only in New Jersey, but in the United States, of the advance in this fight. Here are some figures:

IN THE UNITED STATES

	Before 1905	1916
Organizations	156	2,500
Sanatoria	100	550
Clinics	20	450
Anti-tuberculosis nurses	30	1,400
Open-air Schools	0	300
Death rate (per 100,000) ..	200.7	146.8
Real work against.....	5 States	Every State

IN NEW JERSEY

Organizations	1	49 plus
Sanatoria	0	21 plus
Clinics	1	16
Open-air Schools.....	0	16

I am glad we are going to have a session on Health Insurance. But I want to read a few words now in quotation from an authority who has been studying this work. He says:

"The real defect of nations has been for lack of healthy, virile men, not for lack of ammunition and arms." And:

"Health Insurance, which would mean a more prompt attention to tuberculosis and other similar diseases, and the passage of great sanitary and preventive measures, would help to build up a nation of healthy, virile men."

We do not get our tuberculosis people early enough. Em-

phasis should be laid everywhere on that point. We should try to make people realize that it is not a crime to have tuberculosis, but that tuberculosis is a fact and we have to fight it.

I spoke a moment ago of the fact that the tenement house law had been amended this year. The most important of these changes are the three that increase the size of the outer court from 2' 8" to 3' 6", and requires fire escapes on three-story buildings with only one stairway, and increases the penalty from \$25 to \$50 for violation not wilful. That a basement shall be considered a story based upon its height above curb rather than above the grade of street. That roofs and dormer windows shall be fire-proofed. Slightly enlarges floor space in certain rooms. Provides a sink with running water in each apartment. Gives District Courts located in judicial districts, as well as those in cities, jurisdiction over violations of the act. These are the most important amendments.

Another question that has been much discussed is cancer. It is most interesting to learn that it is neither hereditary nor contagious, according to investigations of life insurance statistics recently completed by Mr. Arthur Hunter, President of the Actuarial Society of America. Mr. Hunter reports that the cancer rate among those in close attendance upon sufferers of the disease is only normal, and that the same normal rate prevails among those whose parents or grandparents died with cancer.

Perhaps before I close it may be of interest to the people here from Montclair to have me read a note written to me by Mr. C. H. Wells, Health Officer, Board of Health, Town of Montclair. He says:

"I am glad to submit for your information the following facts:

"The Fourth Ward is our congested section and 30 per cent. of the people live in tenement houses. Forty-one per cent. of the children under five years of age in Ward 4 live in tenement houses, and the percentage of the population that is under five years of age is 50 per cent. higher than for the town as a whole, so that the death rate in the ward would normally be higher than for the remainder of the town on account of the age distribution of the population. Notwithstanding all of these facts, the infant mortality rate during 1916 was only 72, compared with 61 for the entire town and compared with approximately 100 for the

State and for the country. The death rate for Ward 4 was 12.9 compared with 10.6 for the town and with approximately 14 for the State and country.

"An investigation of the number of cases of communicable diseases in the tenement houses shows that there were fewer cases of scarlet fever, diphtheria and typhoid fever in proportion to the number of people than in the rest of the town, but there were more cases of tuberculosis. The death rate of the tenement house population was slightly higher than that for the rest of the town, but this is explained in a large measure by the fact that there are practically twice as many children under five years of age in the tenement houses as in the remainder of the town, proportionally, and the death rate of this age group is normally more than twice as high as for the entire population. These facts show that the tenement houses of Montclair do not constitute any particular menace to the health of the town."

Mr. Burns last night and Mr. Flemming this morning both reiterated the importance of our getting more and more in touch with the politicians or with the men that are going to be elected to office throughout the State. I think we social workers make a mistake by not being registered, and not going to the polls to fight. Unfortunately the ladies cannot go to the polls, but they will before very long, I sincerely hope. We make a mistake that we do not have the men who are going to occupy positions, where they will vote for our laws, educated to know what the laws are for. Let us see that these men carry out what they are put in office to do.

I want to call your attention to a few more facts in regard to tuberculosis. We have not enough beds in this State to take care of those who should have sanatorium care. Deaths reported for 1915 were 4,337; beds available, 1,531. We ought to follow New York State's standard of one bed for every death. Every county has a right to build a sanatorium, but the trouble is that the politicians want to put up a monument to themselves with a bronze tablet to show that they did it.

GENERAL HEALTH CONDITIONS IN NEW JERSEY AS COMPARED WITH OTHER STATES

**Frederic S. Crum, Assistant Statistician, Prudential Insurance
Company, Newark**

It must have been apparent to the Program Committee that no speaker, no matter how able or epigrammatic he might be, could possibly hope adequately to deal with this large subject in fifteen brief minutes. Sometimes comparisons are odious, but I wish at once to allay the fears of those who may think that I shall find it necessary to utterly condemn New Jersey when she is brought into juxtaposition with her sister States and compared or contrasted with them in the matter of general health conditions. Quite to the contrary, the available facts show that New Jersey comes off remarkably well in any such comparison.

Lacking reliable morbidity or sickness statistics, the best method of comparing the healthfulness of the population of our various States is that of comparing their death returns. In such a comparison New Jersey fares exceedingly well, in view of the fact that she has a complex population, largely of recent foreign origin and largely engaged in industrial pursuits, a fair number of which may rightly be considered extra-hazardous, either because of abnormal accident or of abnormal health-injurious conditions generally incident thereto.

According to the federal census for 1914, 13.1 per cent. of the occupied males of New Jersey were engaged in the various manufacturing industries of the State. This percentage compares with 19.1 per cent. in Rhode Island, 16.6 per cent. in Massachusetts, 10.6 per cent. in New York, 18.9 per cent. in Connecticut, and 11.3 per cent. in Pennsylvania. New Jersey has also her hazardous iron and zinc mines; she has also her fair proportion of railway employees, and she has more than an average proportion of her male population in the pottery, glass, felt hat, smelting and textile industries—all of which are considered to be somewhat abnormally inimical to the health of those employed therein.

For the purpose of testing the comparative general mortality of New Jersey with other of her sister industrial States, I have

drawn up some statistics of mortality, based upon the industrial mortality, as revealed in the experience of The Prudential during the five-year period, 1912 to 1916. These data relate to New Jersey and seven other States—New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Illinois and Ohio. These returns relate only to deaths at ages one year and upward, thus eliminating altogether the infant mortality. This mortality comparison shows the following average death rates: New York, 15.9 per 1,000; Connecticut, 15.5; Rhode Island, 15.2; New Jersey, 14.4; Massachusetts, 13.9; Pennsylvania, 12.9; Illinois, 11.4; and Ohio, 11.2. The average death rate for the eight States for the five-year period was 13.8. In other words, the average rate for New Jersey was lower than for New York, Connecticut and Rhode Island, and it was higher than for Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Illinois and Ohio. The New Jersey death rate was also slightly higher than for the eight States combined, or 14.4, in contrast with 13.8.

In this insurance experience New Jersey, therefore, compares quite favorably with her sister, and somewhat similarly conditioned, States.

It is not yet quite safe to compare the infant mortality rates of States in this country, because of our imperfect registration of births, and the difficulty of getting even approximately true comparative figures of infant populations by our present census methods. It is, however, fairly safe to make State comparisons of death rates for ages under five years. I have prepared such a comparison, showing the death rates at ages under five years for New Jersey and the ten other so-called original registration States, or States included in the United States registration area in 1900.

According to this table, the average death rate per 1,000 of population, ages under five years, during the five-year period, 1910 to 1914, was 38.5 for New Jersey. This rate was exceeded in Rhode Island (42.8), Massachusetts (41.1), New Hampshire (39.9), Connecticut (39.3), and New York (38.7). The following States had lower average mortality rates, ages under five years: Maine (32.1), Michigan (32.1), Indiana (28.6), and Vermont (28.2). New Jersey's death rate at ages under five years was more favorable than that of any of the other equally industrial States in this list.

This table is made more interesting from the fact that it makes possible a comparison of the relative improvement in the death rates in 1910 to 1914, as compared with 1900 to 1904. In this respect also New Jersey comes off exceedingly well, being excelled only by Rhode Island and the District of Columbia, and the latter area, being wholly urban, is not strictly comparable with a State area, for various reasons. In the fifteen-year period, 1900 to 1914, New Jersey's death rate, ages under five years, improved 18.1 per cent., against 17.8 for New York, 16.5 for Massachusetts and 9.9 for Connecticut. Of the industrial States New Jersey was excelled in the improvement of her child death rates during this period only by Rhode Island, which showed a reduction in the rate of 25.7 per cent., against 18.1 per cent. for New Jersey. In this mortality comparison, then, it must be admitted that New Jersey fares very well.

I have not been satisfied to stop here, but have drawn up quite an extended comparison of the mortality of New Jersey, the original registration States combined, Massachusetts, New York, Michigan and Indiana, with distinction of age and sex—on the basis of the life tables, as made available in the United States Census of 1910. Considering only the males, the death rates of New Jersey were higher than for all the original States combined at all ages except under one year, 13 to 19 years, and 85 to 87 years. Compared with Massachusetts, the New Jersey male death rates were higher except at ages under one year, four years, 15 to 17 years, 65 to 75, 84 to 87, and 99 and upwards. In comparison with New York State, the male mortality of New Jersey was more favorable at practically all ages under 76. In the quite strictly agricultural States of Michigan and Indiana, it is only reasonable to expect that the general death rates at practically all ages would be lower than in industrial States like New Jersey, New York and Massachusetts, and that is exactly what the tables disclose. I do not need to dwell upon this detailed comparison at length, for the appended tables give the results of the quite extended comparison and for both sexes. The general conclusion is that New Jersey compares favorably with her sister industrial States, so far as the life tables available in the 1910 Census may be accepted as criteria for such a comparison.

Accepting the proposition that the mortality rate of New Jersey compares favorably with the death rates of similarly con-

ditioned States, it would seem to me to be profitless and even hazardous to stop there. Our health organizations, State, municipal and private, should not be lulled into any sense of false security or into any sense of false satisfaction and contentment, that health matters in this State have reached the acme of perfection, and that little or nothing yet remains to be done to improve the health and sanitary conditions in New Jersey. Nothing could be farther from the truth. There is abundant evidence that much, very much, yet remains to be done before even a reasonable ideal in respect to these matters has been realized. In another connection, I have recently made a very careful estimate of the present mortality in the United States from the preventable causes of death. The total mortality in the continental United States for the present year (1917) was estimated at approximately 1,400,000 deaths. A detailed tabulation showed that fully one-third of this total mortality was caused by preventable diseases, but it was conservatively estimated that one-fourth of the 1,400,000 deaths could be prevented by strict and intensive application throughout the United States of the known methods of disease prevention. That would mean an annual saving, or more or less definite prolonging, of fully 350,000 lives. In the face of this damning evidence of general neglect, we can hardly remain content and at ease in our consideration of sanitation, hygiene and all the activities embraced in the general field of preventive medicine and the medical care and treatment of the sick.

New Jersey, in this respect, is little better or worse than her sister States. I have prepared some tables to illustrate this point and I have made quite a detailed comparison of the mortality from preventable diseases in New Jersey and in Massachusetts, and for the two five-year periods, 1900 to 1904 and 1910 to 1914. I can only present a few of the main features of this comparison and must refer you to the appended tables for fuller information.

During the five years, 1910 to 1914, 36.8 per cent. of the total mortality of New Jersey was referable to what are generally recognized to be preventable causes, or 71,853 deaths out of a total of 195,238 deaths. In Massachusetts, during the same period, 33.9 per cent. of the total mortality was from preventable causes, or 90,153 out of a total of 265,694 deaths. In the face of these facts, it must be evident that the work remaining for our health

authorities to do is too large to warrant them in sitting in idleness or indulging in profitless discussions of comparative excellencies or deficiencies.

There is, however, a bright side even to this rather doleful picture. What has been accomplished in the past gives promise of what may reasonably be expected in the future—and the outlook from this viewpoint is very hopeful indeed.

Comparing the mortality from the preventable diseases in New Jersey during 1910 to 1914 with the same mortality during 1900 to 1904, we find that there has been a reduction in the combined group of causes equivalent to 16.8 per cent. In Massachusetts the similar comparison shows a reduction of 18.5 per cent. To select only a few of the typical preventable causes, the recent results of life-saving efforts in New Jersey and Massachusetts, as well as elsewhere, are seen to have been very excellent. In New Jersey typhoid fever has been reduced 9.1 per cent., diphtheria and croup 18.9 per cent., tuberculosis 30.8 per cent., pneumonia 16.2 per cent., diarrhoea and enteritis 10.2 per cent. The mortality from accidents has been reduced 11.8 per cent. when comparison is made of 1910 to 1914 and 1900 to 1904. In Massachusetts the similar comparisons are as follows: Typhoid fever mortality has been reduced 8.9 per cent., diphtheria and croup 17.5 per cent., tuberculosis 47.9 per cent., and diarrhoea and enteritis 15.3 per cent. Pneumonia increased slightly in Massachusetts during 1910 to 1914, as compared with 1900 to 1904, or 0.7 per cent., as did also the mortality from accidents, or 1.6 per cent. Homicide and suicide have increased in recent years in both New Jersey and Massachusetts. Homicide increased 3.2 per cent. in New Jersey and 1.9 per cent. in Massachusetts. Suicide increased 3.9 per cent. in New Jersey and 3.1 per cent. in Massachusetts.

There has been a great hue and cry raised in certain quarters in recent years that the degenerative diseases of middle life and the higher ages are decidedly on the increase. This may be so, but the case is not yet, in my opinion, proved to the hilt. It is quite possible that a large proportion of this so-called increase in the heart, nervous and urinary diseases is apparent rather than real. Some of it is clearly due to improving diagnosis and the transference of deaths formerly classified under ill-defined causes to these so-called groups of degenerative diseases. Then, too, it

is quite probable that a very considerable proportion of these deaths is of foreign stocks, whose racial characteristics are such that their mortality from these causes is higher than for our native stocks, or stocks of the older immigrants. Granting that there probably is something, and that possibly there is much, in the theory that the degenerative diseases are increasing rapidly in this country, we have at hand much knowledge for combatting such increase. Much has been learned in recent years of the life-shortening effect of bad habits, worry, fatigue, etc. The chief remedy here is through education of both children and adults to the point where the intelligence of the individuals will be such that it will direct them into such habits, and such methods of work and play that their mental and physical health will be vigorous enough to successfully resist most, if not all, of the present preventable ills to which they are prematurely a prey.

In conclusion, then, this brief survey of comparative mortality leads me to the belief that New Jersey is little better or worse in her general health conditions than her sister States, but in common with all of them, she yet has much to do and much to learn before she shall have reached the ideal condition that is now known to be attainable on the basis of past experience.

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY IN REGISTRATION STATES, U. S.—AGES UNDER 5 YEARS

1900-1904 and 1910-1914

Death Rates per 1,000

States	Population		Reduction in Rate	
	Ages Under 5 Years		Actual	Percentage
	1900-1904	1910-1914		
District of Columbia....	68.8	43.4	25.4	36.9
Rhode Island	57.6	42.8	14.8	25.7
New Jersey	47.0	38.5	8.5	18.1
New York	47.1	38.7	8.4	17.8
Massachusetts	49.2	41.1	8.1	16.5
Vermont	33.4	28.2	5.2	15.6
Indiana	33.3	28.6	4.7	14.1
Connecticut	43.6	39.3	4.3	9.9
Maine	35.2	32.1	3.1	8.8
New Hampshire	41.2	39.9	1.3	3.2
Michigan	32.5	32.1	0.4	1.1

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY RATES

AGES ONE AND UPWARD

Prudential Industrial Mortality Experience

1912-1916

States	Policies Exposed to Risk of Termination by Death	Policies Terminated by Death	Death Rate per 1,000
New York	11,289,644	179,367	15.9
Connecticut	700,527	10,854	15.5
Rhode Island	251,386	3,810	15.2
New Jersey	5,840,047	84,144	14.4
Massachusetts	1,677,092	23,253	13.9
Pennsylvania	10,898,471	140,462	12.9
Illinois	4,045,284	46,180	11.4
Ohio	3,478,277	38,979	11.2
Total for 8 States.	38,180,728	527,049	13.8

The average death rates in this experience by single years for the five-year period, 1912-1916, and for the eight States combined, were as follows: 1912, 14.0; 1913, 14.1; 1914, 13.7; 1915, 13.3; 1916, 14.0.

INFANTILE PARALYSIS FUROR VERSUS TUBERCULOSIS

Charles V. Craster, M. D., D. Ph., Health Officer, Newark

Now that the shouting and noise of battle has died away, it is permissible for us at this time to take stock of the trials and alarms of the summer of 1916, at which time the epidemic of infantile paralysis was the universal topic of conversation, and to attempt to make a truer orientation in our view of an extremely new problem that has, so to speak, thrust itself into our public health cosmos like a bolt from the blue. It has always been and always will be a fact that epidemics of disease or plagues carry with them the power of creating consternation and dread in the public mind in so far as the visitation is sudden, apparently of mysterious origin, above all of high mortality, with new and unusual symptoms and after effects.

Poliomyelitis as a disease fulfills all these requirements, except perhaps in respect to its being a new disease, it having been recognized in this country as far back as the year 1841, since which date forty-nine epidemics in various parts of the world have been described by medical observers. Poliomyelitis was, however, comparatively speaking, unknown previous to July, 1916, although some 2,500 cases were recognized in New York City in the year 1907.

To explain somewhat the consternation created in the public mind by poliomyelitis due note must be taken of the publicity given to it and of the minute descriptions given by various authorities upon the disease and published in our newspapers; in some instances, I am afraid that this minute description of the symptoms and after effects was used as a basis for sensational and yellow press material. The following is an instance of the kind of thing that was scattered broadcast.

Speaking of infantile paralysis, Flexner described those clinical symptoms and fatal signs which have, so to speak, put the disease in the spotlight of public interest. He says: "The chief terror of the disease lies in its appalling power to produce deformity. When death occurs it is not the result, as in many infections, of a process of poisoning that robs the patient of strength and consciousness, but is caused solely by paralysis of the respiratory functions, sometimes with merciful suddenness, but often with painful slowness, without in any degree obscuring the consciousness of the suffering victim until just before the end is reached. No more terrible tragedy can be witnessed."

It is such pictures as these that have no doubt helped to place poliomyelitis in the forefront of public attention. There are, I am sure, many of us here to-day who are familiar with death scenes associated with many diseases and of which perhaps a more horror-striking picture could be drawn than the one quoted above, and yet we do not receive minute descriptions of these diseases and their fatal terminations published in the press. There is nothing sadder or more pitiful than to watch the closing scenes of a case of pulmonary tuberculosis, and yet I have not as yet seen such an occurrence graphically described in any public print. Although it is true there are many other diseases whose onset is equally abrupt and whose symptoms are equally as painful to witness as poliomyelitis, such as cerebro spinal meningitis, for

example. One other attribute of the latter disease which has riveted the public attention is no doubt the persistent susceptibility of children under five years of age and the unusually high mortality of the case rate, somewhere above 26 per cent. of all cases being fatal.

The experience of New York City and of Newark has shown also that 85 per cent. of the cases of poliomyelitis and 86 per cent. of all deaths from that disease were under five years of age. Very fresh in our minds must be the recollection of the hardships and even injustice of isolation and quarantine methods adopted by many cities and States against the citizen and his family from infected localities. In 1916 our knowledge of how infection was spread was so limited as to make any form of quarantine measures somewhat a matter of debate, and we may still find it difficult to justify any restriction being placed on the freedom of the adult individual until such time as we have a fuller and more definite direction as to how the actual virus is spread from an infected case to susceptible children. Without detracting in any way from the importance of the lesson to be learned by the poliomyelitis epidemic of 1916, we cannot help notice, as all must notice who are concerned in the conservation of public health, the public apathy manifested with regard to tuberculosis, which is in startling contrast to this furor aroused by poliomyelitis, and yet what are the facts which determine the relative importance of the two diseases? During the three months of the summer of 1916 a widespread epidemic of poliomyelitis was experienced in the Eastern cities from Boston, Mass., to Washington, D. C. In the whole expanse of this widespread epidemic prevalence two localities stand out as being pre-eminently affected. New York City and Newark, with a joint population of 6,352,841, had 2,718 deaths from poliomyelitis, a death rate of 42.7 per 100,000 of this population. In the same year and in the same combined localities there were 9,084 deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis, making a death rate of 141.4 per 100,000. It must be remembered that this latter death rate is an annual one and not a matter of an occasional epidemic visitation, as in the case of poliomyelitis.

Presupposing that the case mortality in tuberculosis is at least 10 per cent. of the cases, this would indicate that there are at least 90,000 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis in these two cities alone always existing at one time, as compared with 10,000 cases

of poliomyelitis occurring at certain indefinite cycles of years, for it is a well-known fact that poliomyelitis exhausts the material upon which it feeds and does not recur again in any one neighborhood until sufficient susceptible children are again present. Pulmonary tuberculosis, on the other hand, knows no age limit and its presence in any community, instead of using up available material and disappearing afterwards, does by its very presence eventually predispose the immune portion of the community to eventual infection. Perhaps some reason for the apparent indifference of the public to appreciate the magnitude of the annual toll paid to pulmonary tuberculosis is that familiarity which breeds the well-known contempt of danger. There is something homely and attractive in a disease entity which is common to all classes in the community. It is looked upon as a necessary evil associated with civilized communities and one which, although regarded in some abstract way as very distinctly preventable, there is a feeling that the stamping out of the disease, if it is ever accomplished, will be through the work and duty of the experts in tuberculosis prevention. This probably being the view of the man on the street regarding tuberculosis, he will fail to be stimulated into concern unless confronted with something more alarming than facts or figures. Tuberculosis lacks the dramatic touch and mystery and lightning-like appearance of such a disease as poliomyelitis. On the contrary, its slow onset and prolonged course, ending in recovery a long way off or total incapacity, must ever fail to inspire the same feeling of dread and fear of its existence in our midst. There is no rigid isolation of tuberculosis, the sufferer being free to move from city to city and from State to State. No federal authority controls his going or coming and his disease, when reported, is required by law to be treated as a confidential report not to be divulged. The daily paper does not chronicle his name and address, nor is his removal to hospital made a special news story. The exact value of the life of a child under five years to the community is, of course, susceptible of fairly definite calculation. It may well be said that the value to be set on persons of young adult life is, comparatively speaking, greater than in the case of the younger age periods where the chances of surviving the assaults of disease incident to childhood are not high.

Pulmonary tuberculosis, as we know, takes a high toll and

is more prevalent between the ages of 15 and 55 than at any other age period. In Newark in 1915 the deaths in this age group were represented as follows:

Tuberculosis	719
Bright's disease	215
Heart disease	205
Cancer	200
Pneumonia	175
Apoplexy	96

Poliomyelitis appears to create greater ravages in the child population than is really apparent from the study of populations by age groups.

Bolduan states that "this disease certainly does not infect all children of susceptible age presumably exposed, and that of 600,000 children in New York City under five years of age in 1916, only 8,000, or 1 1/3 per cent., became infected with poliomyelitis." Who among us will doubt that were most children exposed to tuberculosis a much greater percentage would be infected than this? In proof I may say that of all children who had been in contact with tuberculosis cases in the homes and subsequently examined in the Newark Dispensary Clinic, it was found that over 75 per cent. were infected with tuberculosis.

Comparing this with our experience of the infective nature of poliomyelitis, to quote Bolduan again, "not in a single instance did the disease spread in hospitals to other patients, nurses or doctors. Moreover, secondary infection was infrequent in families. This is remarkable considering the extent of the epidemic and the rapidity of its spread."

I may say that our experience in Newark of the infectivity of poliomyelitis was of a similar nature. We have been sufficiently impressed with the dramatic appeal of this new disease and of its attendant tragic consequences. The picture is, however, not to be compared with the ever-present menace of tuberculosis in a community, which may be said to be a lurking foe kept within bounds only by the most strenuous exertions of social and anti-tuberculosis workers. We may hope for a great awakening of the public some day to the recognition of the foe that is in our midst and to the knowledge of the prevalence of

tuberculosis in the most useful periods of adult life. It is increasingly evident that during the whole life of the citizen he is exposed to possible infection with tuberculosis upon each hand and not, as in the case of poliomyelitis, at only epidemic periods of prevalence. Our limited knowledge of the cause of poliomyelitis and its method of spread is at least some excuse for our failure so far to restrain its ravages in a susceptible population. The same cannot be said of tuberculosis, the organism of which is known and its life history studied from every angle.

The means by which tuberculosis infection is spread are virtually agreed upon, although the exact manner of spread is not as yet clear. Sufficient information is at our hand, however, to indicate empirically that the disease is capable of absolute control. Were such knowledge applied in its entirety or without fear or favor, tuberculosis as the problem of the century lacks proper newspaper publicity. One of the reasons for this must be due to the unwillingness of the public to look a huge problem in the face. It is our duty as sanitarians to preach the gospel of fact bereft of fancy trappings. To ask that some measure of public concern for poliomyelitis be extended to the ever-present tuberculosis menace to our young men and women among us and for the recognition that both poliomyelitis and tuberculosis are not spread by any grand cosmical phenomena, not due to earthquakes or mysterious waves of unseen and poisonous air, but to simple familiar and household conditions of personal contact as yet not fully understood to explain the spread and fatality of epidemic diseases in our modern communities.

LAWS INDIRECTLY AFFECTING HEALTH OF CHILDREN

Douglas P. Falconer, Secretary, Children's Aid Society, Newark

The subject which has been assigned to me covers such a variety of legislative enactments that it will be impossible to discuss even the most important of them. Almost all legislation dealing with living and working conditions, recreation, education and health and almost all the laws designed to protect children, indirectly affect the health of children. The New Jersey Child Labor Committee has recently published an excellent summary

of child welfare laws where all necessary information can readily be obtained. The work of child welfare organizations, however, has very important health aspects.

The medical report of the Essex County Parental School for March, and remember that this institution deals largely with delinquent children, says that of the sixty-nine children examined the following defects were noted: Of the abdomen, four; of the blood, seven; deformities, fifty; ears, two; eyes, seven; glands, twenty-seven; genitalia, twenty-seven; heart, eleven; stomach, three; nose, twenty-eight; nutrition, forty-four; skin, twenty-three; teeth, fifty-three; tonsils, fifteen.

The recent reports of the Medical Inspector of the Newark Board of Education show that of the children examined, 65 to 72 per cent. have physical defects which require treatment.

Of the sixty-one children most recently committed to the Children's Aid Society, twenty-one children, or 34 per cent., were physically normal, while forty children, or 66 per cent., required treatment, as follows: Thirteen, teeth; eight, adenoids and tonsils; five, malnutrition; four, defective vision; three, stomach trouble; two, aural catarrh; two, nasal catarrh; two, ricketts; one, heart trouble; one, lameness from infantile paralysis; one, hysteria from neglected cerebral meningitis; one, kidney trouble; one, flat-foot; one, pulmonary tuberculosis.

When such a large percentage of our children are physically defective it is proper that child welfare workers should pay much attention to the field of health. In nearly 10 per cent. of the cases which were reported to us for our assistance, sickness was the outstanding cause of the family trouble.

Because there are other agencies dealing more directly with ill health, these cases of this kind which are reported to us usually are those where the health agency has failed to secure proper results and feels that we can help them out of their difficulty. One type of case is that where the family, either through ignorance or wilfulness, refuse to provide adequate medical or surgical attendance for the children, or to observe proper sanitary precautions. To illustrate:

A small boy of Montclair who had a broken collar bone which had not been properly set was in a fair way to become permanently deformed because his head was being drawn over toward the injured side. The school nurse and others who had

been interested had been unable to insist on the operation. Under the Child Welfare Law of 1915 we were able to secure the proper result.

Another case of local interest was one where a very tubercular mother had refused to go to a sanitarium and her presence at home, where she was not observing sanitary precautions, was a menace to the children. The Montclair Health Officer had struggled in vain with this case and by working in co-operation with him we were able to get the woman to a sanitorium. Later she returned home without being cured and we removed the children, placing them in private families to board, the father paying the board with a little assistance from the Town of Montclair.

In other cases, acting under this law, we have insisted that families supply glasses, braces and other necessary treatment.

We have also found the Juvenile Court Law very helpful, making a general charge of neglect in instances where proper sanitary precautions were not taken. I need not multiply the detailed cases. Enough has been said to show that the child welfare agent can be of a great deal of assistance to the various agencies directly concerned with health. I feel that we have sufficient laws to cover the subject.

Many people doubt the right of the State to force parents to have operations performed and to accept medical treatment when it is against their wish, and it is possible that the health protection section of the Child Welfare Law would be declared unconstitutional if carried to the higher courts. I trust that this will never occur and that the administration of the law will be so wise and sane that the test will not be made.

The most difficult part of child welfare work is not found in cases where the neglect is so obvious as to make court action necessary, but is rather to be found in those cases where the general standard of living is below par; where the health of the children is endangered because of insufficient or improper feeding and general unsanitary conditions of the home, not bad enough to invoke the action of the Board of Health and yet really dangerous for small children. You have found a danger spot when you locate families living without proper toilet facilities, seven or eight sleeping in one room with one small window, and children sent to school on such poor and insufficient food that they go to sleep in the middle of the morning session, too weary to

profit by the expensive educational system provided for their benefit.

I am reminded of one case which the doctors term hospitalism, where a small child appeared at one hospital or another every few months, and after a cure had been effected, it would be returned to the same bad home conditions and would reappear for further treatment in a short time.

A few of these cases the law sometimes will help and I know of none better than the Child Welfare Law, but in most instances the neglect is due to ignorance and to the low standard of living required by the combination of a small income and a large family. In these cases we must expect to reap a great harvest of undernourished and sickly children until we can attack causes more intelligently than we are doing to-day.

It certainly is clear that the health workers and child welfare workers should more closely understand each other in order that these cases which have both health and child welfare phases shall receive attention from one or the other of the groups and not be neglected by both. I have seen a number of instances of this kind.

In one case the mother and two children had contracted typhoid fever and had been sent to the Isolation Hospital. The children who had remained at home had been exposed to the disease and could not safely be placed in any institution or private family for the care of children. The father could not stay home and take care of them, as he had to work. The Associated Charities referred the case to the Board of Health as a health problem, and they referred it to us as a child welfare task. I am inclined to think it is the former and that provision should be made for children who have been exposed to contagious diseases. It is not enough for the Board of Health to warn that children are a menace because of exposure to disease, but it must go further and take care of them until that danger is over.

We must give that kind of service to the community which will allow us to create adequate community programs for all of our social service activities; programs where there shall be no gaps and which will not allow any one in need of assistance in the community to be without it. In order to further that end, I am glad to have the opportunity to speak for child welfare on

a program largely concerned with health and housing and to add my little share toward the furthering of general mutual understanding.

LAWS DIRECTLY AFFECTING HEALTH OF CHILDREN

C. H. Wells, Health Officer, Montclair

This discussion is a continuation of that opened by Mr. Falconer, and has for its object a review in a brief way of the existing legislation on matters directly affecting the health of children, or on matters with which health boards are directly concerned. It is believed that if the members of this Conference have clearly before them just what can be done under present laws, as set forth in these two discussions, they will be better prepared to urge a definite program in their own communities and they will be able to give better advice when the question of new legislation is being considered by the various organizations with which they may be connected.

Laws that directly affect the health of children are of necessity health laws and they are, or at least should be, enforced by the board of health. All board of health laws also have a more or less direct bearing on the health of children. It is thus seen that the board of health is the key to the whole subject and that without efficient boards of health that are properly backed up by the municipal authorities the health of children will suffer regardless of the laws that may appear on the statute books. The fundamental health law, that affects children, then, is that which provides that there shall be a board of health in every municipality, and every person who has the interest of the children at heart should strive in every way to see that suitable men are placed upon all such boards and that such boards have the support of all interested organizations.

Probably the law which is capable of causing the greatest effect on the health of children is that which provides that "local boards of health shall have power and authority to appoint such subordinate officers and agents as they may deem necessary." This law gives boards of health the right to employ nurses for infant welfare work, and it is now generally recognized that the

nurse can do more than any other one factor in improving the health of the babies by her educational work in the home, by her teaching of milk modification and by her work at the baby clinics. The nurse can also be of great assistance in protecting the health of children through educational work in families in which there are cases of tuberculosis and also by securing the removal of tuberculosis patients to institutions. It is unquestionably the duty of every local board of health to act under this law and employ one or more nurses.

The general law that all births shall be reported within five days gives boards of health the knowledge that is necessary in order to follow up births promptly, wherever necessary, and see that the infant is receiving proper care. In Montclair all midwife cases are followed up promptly and we have an ordinance which provides that all midwives shall report their confinement cases as soon as they are called to attend the case. We are thus enabled to follow up our infants five days sooner than if we waited for the birth certificate to be filed. It may not be out of place to mention in this connection that in order to secure complete and accurate reports of births in Montclair it is the practice of the local health office to mail certified copies of birth certificates to the parents with a letter setting forth the importance of accurate birth registration and asking for corrections if there are any inaccuracies. Birth registration is also of importance in keeping children from leaving school and going to work at occupations and at ages that would result in injury to their health.

In order that proper care may be assured at the birth of a child the statutes provide that any person beginning the practice of midwifery after July, 1910, must first obtain a license from the State Board of Medical Examiners. The law also requires a midwife to secure the services of a reputable physician as soon as an abnormal symptom appears. If, within two weeks after birth, one or both eyes of an infant become inflamed or show any unnatural discharge and no physician is in attendance it is mandatory for the midwife or other attendant to report that fact in writing to the local board of health within six hours, which board shall order that the infant be placed under the charge of a physician. The State Department of Health is required by law to furnish midwives and physicians such prophylactic remedies as

it deems best to prevent ophthalmia neonatorum and all attendants at childbirth are supposed to use such preventatives.

Another law that is designed to have a direct bearing on the health of certain infants is Chapter 209 of the Laws of 1915, which permits boards of health by ordinance to license and regulate the manner of keeping boarding houses for infants and children.

The food supply of the infant is the next most important matter to consider and the State Law provides that local boards of health may pass ordinances to aid in the enforcement of the law as to the adulteration of all kinds of food and drink. Specific authority is given for the complete control of the milk supply. When we consider the large number of epidemics that have been caused by infected milk supplies and when we consider that a large part of the tuberculosis in children is due to the use of raw milk from herds infected with tuberculosis, the importance of this law is very apparent. It has been well recognized for years that impure milk was the cause of a large amount of the sickness of infants during the summer months and that there has been a marked decrease in the infant death rate as soon as a clean milk supply was obtained. In view of the very direct relation between the milk supply and the health of infants every board of health must be considered negligent that does not require that its milk supply shall be produced under the most sanitary conditions, from cows proven by physical examination and tuberculin test to be free from disease and that it shall be handled only by employes who have passed suitable physical examinations. Proper pasteurization may be accepted as a substitute for the tuberculin test. Ten years ago the Montclair Board of Health first required the tuberculin test, or pasteurization as an alternative, and in the resulting litigation the State Supreme Court upheld our authority. There is no question but what the law is ample to protect the entire milk supply of the State and thus protect to a large extent the lives and health of the infants and children if sufficient interest can be aroused in the different municipalities. The State Department of Health is empowered to take full charge when a case of communicable disease is detected upon a dairy premises, so that laxness on the part of local officials is not now such a serious matter as formerly, so far as known danger points are concerned.

Upon reaching school age children are subjected to a medical

examination by the school inspector. By statute this work is now under the control of boards of education for the public schools, and it is mandatory, but boards of health should see that this important work is performed in the parochial schools, as is the case in Montclair and in some other cities. It is impossible to overestimate the value to the child of the early detection and removal or correction of physical defects and abnormalities. Any child who is a detriment to the health or cleanliness of others in the classroom may be excluded from school and parents are obliged to remove the cause of such exclusion if it is possible to do so. The medical inspection system when properly carried out also protects the children from exposure to mild cases of certain communicable diseases and guards against the premature admission to school of pupils who have been absent on account of communicable disease. The value of this work to the health of the child has been amply proven.

When children wish to leave school and go to work the State law provides that they shall be examined by the medical inspector to determine whether they have a normal development and whether they are of sound health and physically able to be employed in the occupation in which they may legally be employed. The laws of 1914 also provide that no child under 16 years of age shall be employed in any occupation that is detrimental to health or is dangerous to life and limb of a child of that age, or that exposes him to excessive heat or cold, or that requires an excessive muscular exertion that is detrimental to the health and strength of a child of that age, or in the handling of any goods, wares or merchandise that are poisonous or that give off dust, fumes or gases, or in working around any heated metal, combination of metal or metals or their salts, that give off any dust, fumes or gases that are detrimental to the health, or on, in or around any scaffolding of any character whatsoever, or on, in and around any building that is under construction, or in any employment whatsoever which exposes him to conditions that will retard his growth or injure his health, or in any place that is damp or unhealthy, or that is injurious in any way to the health and strength of a child, or in any place where, on account of the light or the nature and character of the work, the child's eyesight or hearing will be injured.

The majority of the laws that affect the health of children

are those that have for their object the control of communicable diseases, and local boards of health have full authority to pass ordinances to prevent the spread of epidemics, to maintain and enforce quarantine and to remove infected persons to a suitable place. The law specifically authorizes the removal (by force if necessary) of cases of certain communicable diseases from tenement houses and boarding houses. In communities where there is improper control of communicable diseases the result is due entirely to laxness on the part of the local officials and not to defects in or lack of statutory authority. In order that proper control may be exercised by local boards the State law provides that physicians shall report all such diseases within 12 hours after their first professional attendance.

The laws of 1900 and 1915 provide that the governing body of any city shall, upon the request of the board of health, provide the funds for the construction of a hospital which shall be devoted exclusively to the treatment of persons suffering from contagious and infectious diseases. In addition to the provision thus made for the protection of children against communicable diseases the laws of 1903 give boards of freeholders authority to erect county hospitals for contagious and infectious diseases and the laws of 1910 and 1912 give such boards power to establish hospitals for the care of persons suffering from tuberculosis. While young children are not always admitted to tuberculosis hospitals the effect of this law on the health of children is very great, for these institutions permit the removal of centers of infection. In fact, tuberculosis patients who refuse or neglect to dispose of their sputum in a proper manner may be committed to the county hospital by a judge of the Court of Common Pleas. This law should be of great value in preventing the spread of the disease in families in which there are children. Other supplementary tuberculosis laws give authority to a large extent for the control of this disease. In Montclair we have a regulation that no child under 16 years of age shall be allowed to live in a family in which there is a case of tuberculosis unless every care is taken, to the satisfaction of the board of health, to prevent the transfer of infection. The act providing for the establishment of a State hospital at Glen Gardner for the treatment of tuberculous persons is also of great aid in improving the health of the individual children who are sent there and in protecting the health of other children in

the family. Any one who has seen case after case of tuberculosis among children in the same family cannot fail to be impressed with the necessity of invoking the aid of all of those laws in regard to this disease.

The laws of 1904 provide that indigent patients shall be furnished with antitoxin free of charge, at the expense of the State Department of Health. Most local boards furnish this remedy to poor patients for both curative and immunizing purposes and hundreds of lives have thereby been saved.

The living conditions of children are regulated so far as tenement houses are concerned by the State Tenement House Law, and local boards of health have full authority to regulate for all buildings the method of connecting with the public sewer, the manner of installing plumbing, the method of constructing privies and cesspools where sewers are not available, and to prevent the use of polluted water, to prevent overcrowding to such an extent as to be injurious to health and to prevent the continuation of any nuisance that is detrimental to health. Probably the fly breeding nuisance is the one that has the most direct bearing upon the health of infants and according to the new State Sanitary Code there is now specific authority for the abatement of nuisances of this kind. Some local ordinances also provide that no inner rooms shall be used for living purposes, and there seems to be warrant in the statutes for ordinances of this kind. The enforcement of all of these regulations has a more or less direct bearing upon the health of children.

Other laws that are more general in character, but which assist in protecting the health of the children, are the following:

1. The law of 1911, which prohibits the use of the common drinking cup. It is well known that the common cup is a ready means for the transfer of infection from one child to another.
2. The law which prohibits the sale of soda-water, ginger ale or other non-alcoholic drinks which contain any substance that is deleterious to health.
3. The pure food and drug law, together with requirements concerning the health of food manufacturers.
4. The law concerning the protection of the public water supplies of the State.
5. The law preventing the distribution of medicinal preparations except to persons over 12 years of age.

This brief review of the more important laws that have a direct bearing upon the health of children will show that the pressing need so far as child health is concerned is the enforcement of laws already on the statute books and the enactment and enforcement of local ordinances already authorized rather than additional legislation.

Discussion

MISS BRADFORD, *Jersey City*: Mr. Chairman, I would like to say a few words, not so much to enter into the discussion of the morning, but rather to correct and amplify some of the statements which have just been made regarding the history of the New Jersey Tenement House movement. I would like this audience to know of its very beginning and I would like to give the credit and honor that is due to Montclair, and I would also like to prove that I am a truthful woman. Should you go to Whittier House you would see on the walls in one of our rooms a large chart, which was prepared for the twentieth anniversary of Whittier House. In its center are the words "Whittier House" and radiating from it in all directions the different things started by Whittier House, the years in which they were started and also the years in which they were given into the hands of the city or of the State.

Fifteen years ago, in 1902, we had in residence at Whittier House, a Montclair girl, who had received her elementary and High School education in Montclair, who entered Smith College from Montclair and who after her graduation from Smith College came to Whittier House as resident. She lived in Whittier House three years. During her second year she obtained her college fellowship, and took for her thesis and her work "*The Housing Conditions of Jersey City*." This young girl was Miss Mary B. Sayles and her investigations were the first scientific investigations made of housing conditions in New Jersey. She was exceedingly thorough and scientific in her work and when I look back to her youth and to her inexperience, I can but wonder at her temerity and her persistence. I could tell you many stories connected with her investigations, for this kind of work was new and not understood in Jersey City. For instance, she was arrested and led to the police station by two policemen. She was driven from the houses several times by irate landlords and tenement house

tenants. However, nothing daunted, she persevered and thoroughly investigated the number of tenements she had set for herself as her task. The result of these investigations was published in pamphlet form by the College Settlement Association and one of them naturally sent to Mr. Robert W. DeForest, then head of the Tenement House Commission in New York, who was so impressed with the work done by Miss Sayles that he sent a copy to Mr. Franklin Murphy, who was at that time Governor of New Jersey. After studying this pamphlet, realizing the need of tenement reform in Jersey City, and reasoning that if such were true of Jersey City it must be equally true of other cities in the State, Governor Murphy established our New Jersey Tenement House Commission. I like to think the very first public meeting ever held by that Commission was held in Whittier House. We invited its members to dine with us, and though the Governor himself could not accept, he sent his secretary and other State officials. The chairman of the meeting was Dr. Leonard Gordon, of Jersey City. This then was the beginning of our present Tenement House Commission and fully explains the chart which were you to come to Whittier House you would see in the large room and which says, "New Jersey Tenement House Investigation started by Whittier House, 1902." It is but natural, Mr. Chairman, to say that in this reform you have the intense interest and sympathy of those of us living in Whittier House Settlement.

THE CHAIRMAN: We are glad to hear this report about the origin of the Tenement House Commission.

MRS. HEILMAN: Does the law make it obligatory to have all rooms with windows, or can they have windows opening into the next room?

THE CHAIRMAN: In a single family house?

MRS. HEILMAN: No, not a single family.

THE CHAIRMAN: How many families?

MRS. HEILMAN: I think there are at least four families in the house I have reference to; one room in the house has a window opening into another bed room, none on the other side. There is really no light or air coming in except through another room.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is permissible—unfortunately.

SPEAKER *from the floor*: Do I understand that milk coming from a tuberculous cow, if pasteurized, is perfectly all right for use?

MR. WELLS: The statement I intended to make—it may not have been clear—was that no milk should be sold in any community unless from tested cows or pasteurized. That does not mean that if cows were diseased the milk could be used with safety if it was pasteurized. But grade cows show the disease on the tuberculin test that do not show it physically. If the milk is pasteurized it is believed to be safe when the disease is so slight that it does not show on the physical examination though it might on the tuberculin test. Probably if it shows only on the tuberculin test the disease has not got so far that it would spread in the herd. You would not want to take the product from any diseased animal, but pasteurization relieves the farmer of the expense of tuberculin test when the animals have passed the physical test. Of course pasteurization accomplishes a world of good besides. It kills vast numbers of bacteria which are known to be detrimental. Pasteurization is not a substitute for the tuberculin test, but many authorities believe all milk should be pasteurized. First we should keep the cows as healthy as we can have them and keep milk within reason as to expense, and then have the milk pasteurized.

MRS. WITTPENN, *Jersey City*: In your opening remarks you said that although houses in themselves had been supposed to spread disease, particularly tuberculosis, recent investigation shows that that is not the case. I think we must emphasize that while tuberculosis can only be spread directly by contact with the disease, the house is so greatly a predisposing cause that it might almost be called a direct cause of tuberculosis and other diseases, for the germs develop and grow and live for some time in the presence of filth and dirt and darkness, and unless we have the necessary light so that the dirt can be seen not only by the housewife but by visitors coming in, the dirt will exist and the germs will exist.

Furthermore, when we have one tuberculosis patient, the germs may die but the particular patient continues to live there and to expectorate, so though some have died others take their place and tomorrow will undoubtedly cause disease among the family and visitors.

I feel we should emphasize the importance of housing associations in local communities. We have our State organizations and local tenement house commissions frequently in the city, but the force of inspectors is inadequate in the State Department, and

the local departments though they have their health officers lack trained inspectors. Then those who are not trained go in and do not really know what they are looking for, and do not find the violations. There is another point. I feel if it were possible for somebody to prepare a simplified tenement house code it would help workers to know what the true violations are, and they would know what to look for and help to get the laws that are on our books enforced.

THE CHAIRMAN: I did not mean we were to give up the housing and simply keep the homes clean. But if the houses are well looked after the danger is much nullified.

MRS. THOMPSON: I said last night that I thought it was a distinct loss to the Conference that we had not felt it possible to give up any part of our sessions to the discussion of prisons and the prison situation. It is a specially propitious circumstance that we have an opportunity this afternoon to meet a gentleman whom it will be a pleasure to us all to greet here, and to give our assurance that we are behind him in his policies with regard to Trenton Prison—Mr. Mulheron.

MR. MULHERON: I want to say this is my first appearance before a gathering of this character. I have been the prison keeper for the last three months. A great deal has been written and said about me through the State and generally by those who do not know me.

I entered upon this work not because I was keen for it, but the prominent men of the State seemed to think I was the man for the job, and I am trying to fill it. I may say I have been trying to fill it practically alone. I don't say that in any way of criticism of you ladies and gentlemen who represent all kinds of organizations, as I understand it, here, but I have never met any of you at the prison, neither men nor women, and it is surprising to find all the criticisms in the newspapers about it and about the new prison keeper. He has been styled a politician. Well, I have never been a politician, but I was placed at the head of my party in my county, and if I have made any success of that leadership I have nothing to be ashamed of. I have followed my business all my life as a workman, a business man and a manufacturer, and have nothing to be ashamed of in that.

I was not keen for this job, but I am now, and I will be more than glad and pleased to have your support in every direction in

any way you can use it. But one thing I want to say. Do not criticize unless you come down and find conditions yourselves and see how they can be helped. I say that not to you only, but to the newspapers. Know your ground, I say, before you criticize, have facts and go in the right spirit. You have a Commission investigating prisons, penal institutions, and every other kind of institution, and I want to say I am glad that there are such Commissions. It is just as well that we should know what there is.

Another thing I will advise you ladies and gentlemen in connection with prison matters. Go out and help the dependents of the men who are in there. I get more appeals for help in that direction than any other. They need the help a good deal more than the fellows in the jails. I have mingled enough with men and women in my life to know what I am talking about. Some things have been mentioned here by gentlemen who have read papers that I know are true, particularly the young doctor here who talked about cases where five or six people were living in one room. I know, I have seen it in Jersey City and in New York and in my own city.

But above all, ladies and gentlemen, don't criticize the prison keeper till you have seen conditions, and know. Remember that in great measure his hands are tied behind his back. He is not responsible for all the past difficulties there.

SALIENT POINTS OF WHAT SHOULD BE DONE

Summed Up by Mr. W. L. Kinkad

I think we should ask State officials to spend more for housing purposes. We should insist on better birth records throughout the State. We should emphasize the fact that tuberculosis is not given enough publicity in the newspapers—take the example of the publicity in the case of infantile paralysis and the interest it aroused. Tuberculosis workers should get more publicity. Tuberculosis should be looked on as something that can be helped, not as something that can't be helped.

More Charity organization workers should study the children who get into the courts. We should all study child welfare laws, and should all co-operate with the work, all working together and not apart, as emphasized by Mr. Falconer.

We all need a Central Charities Committee or Council of Philanthropy, such as they have here, to get together once a month and discuss problems and get ideas so that we may work together for the same ends.

Milk facts should be given more publicity. One of the New York towns takes the bacterial tests and sediment tests and publishes them every week in the paper, with the name of the dealer. The housewife knows then whether to buy milk of one dealer or another.

Tuberculosis workers should take notice of the law that covers county work, and where patients are not living as they should, should invoke that law.

SALIENT POINTS OF WHAT CAN BE DONE

Summed Up by Mr. Wells

I made some notes of what appears to me to be the gist of this meeting.

Direct contact with the patient, whether in tuberculosis, scarlet fever, or diphtheria, is the principal thing we should consider, and not infected rooms or houses or school rooms—direct contact with the individual who has the disease or who may be the carrier of the disease.

Early diagnosis in tuberculosis is essential to save the patient and protect the family. It is only by diagnosing cases early and securing proper separation of the child that an effective health work can be performed. Physicians and all interested should make great effort to secure early diagnosis and report in regard to tuberculosis.

We should recognize the marked reduction in the death rate in New Jersey and in the country and in Montclair since the Health Board activities have been intensified, and since the work by private organizations such as the Public Health Committees, Charity Organizations, etc., has been actively carried on; also the marked reduction in certain diseases. New Jersey health statistics are very favorable, but about forty per cent. of the deaths are still preventable. This points to one thing, namely, that efficient boards of health are necessary and boards of health are justified in asking for necessary funds to carry on their work.

The importance of tuberculosis when contrasted with poliomyelitis was very strongly brought out by Dr. Craster. There is no question but what there should be more publicity in regard to tuberculosis and no question that if poliomyelitis recurs this summer it should be considered in a more sane manner and should have no more publicity than should an equal number of cases of scarlet fever, and there is no occasion for making the restrictions any more rigid than for scarlet fever.

We should recognize the great importance of child welfare work on the health of certain classes of children. It was brought out clearly by Mr. Falconer that the majority of these children without child welfare work would go on with impaired health. We should recognize that Boards of Health are the key to the health of the children. They should appoint nurses to do much work that cannot be done by sanitary inspectors, and they should have full power to control milk and food supplies.

It is plain that children cannot legally be employed in any occupation injurious to their health. The laws are ample for the full control of diseases and for the general health of the children, and the importance of co-operation is what should be recognized.

Co-operate rather than criticize, and every society represented here can do no better thing than work with the board of health of its own community and persuade it to do the things that today have been shown possible of accomplishment.

(The session was adjourned.)

Monday Evening, April 30, 1917

SOCIAL AND HEALTH INSURANCE

Robert Lynn Cox, Third Vice-President, Metropolitan Life
Insurance Company, Montclair, Chairman

Musical Selections—Double Quartet from Montclair Glee Club.

THE CHAIRMAN: It gives me very great pleasure to be called upon to preside at this meeting tonight, at which we are to discuss the subject of insurance. It is rather refreshing for a man in the insurance business to find an audience before him that seems ready to proclaim insurance as being a good thing. A large part of our time is spent in persuading people they should have insurance, but we seem to have reached a new era in insurance business—a recognition that insurance is a necessity rather than a luxury.

The field is a broad one, we are learning today that we must have insurance covering almost every vicissitude of life, and this no man believes more firmly than a man who is in some branch of the insurance business.

I suppose we are to deal tonight particularly with those phases of insurance which have to do with the human being rather than with property—that is to say, with insurance against death, personal injury, sickness, maternity insurance, and even unemployment insurance. So we cover a wide range in this discussion of social insurance.

But social insurance, strictly speaking, would not be described by a mere enumeration of the kinds I have described, because it has taken a new meaning. Insurance hitherto has been left to the private company. But we are reaching the point now where many people believe it ought to be inspired, carried on, and perhaps enforced, by the Government. So as we come to believe that the Government itself shall enforce insurance we call it in general terms, social insurance.

This kind of insurance had its inception across the water. We have been accustomed to think of the subject as being best illustrated in Germany. That is not a particularly happy country to refer to at the present time, because we are not at the moment

thinking as favorably as we once did of German methods. But I hope we have not forgotten the fact that Germany has a very efficient Government, and if you can approve their form of government you can see that in the insurance business their methods may be most efficient.

But as chairman I must not trespass too far on your time. I would call your attention, however, to the fact that this subject is very important and has many angles. It is fraught with many difficulties. We are all in sympathy nowadays with the object of insurance. None of us are in the position of people a few generations ago who thought that to insure was to interfere in some way with the divine will. Our only question is how best to insure ourselves.

An audience of this kind, interested in the problems with which you have dealt, can see the results of failure to find some way to absorb the shock of those events which bring so much misery into the world—death, accident, sickness, unemployment, etc.

We are all in sympathy with the object of insurance and with the results, because in the degree that we have insurance and can thereby absorb these shocks, we save or prevent human misery. But we get into difficulties in attempting to work out the method. How shall it be done? What will be the expense? Shall we have it forced on us by the government, or shall we follow the freer paths we have followed hitherto and be allowed to take insurance or not take insurance, pay for it or not pay for it, take the risk and suffer the results if we lose or protect ourselves by insuring and paying the cost?

The thing which is being most actively presented now is the subject of health insurance. Most actively, I say, because its advocacy is being carried on by the American Association for Labor Legislation, as most of you know. So whether we will or not we must consider the question, and as citizens must consider it from the standpoint of public interest, because in the last analysis we all agree that what is best for the public weal we must have. Information along this line we are seeking here tonight. We are to be favored by an address from a man who knows his subject well, a man who has been for many years a student of history, and teacher of political economy. He served as professor in several American colleges, his last position being in our own State

institution, Princeton University. It gives me great pleasure to present my good friend, Dr. Royal Meeker, U. S. Commissioner of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C.

SOCIAL INSURANCE IN THE UNITED STATES

**Dr. Royal Meeker, U. S. Commissioner of Labor Statistics,
Washington**

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: It is a great pleasure to meet a great New Jersey audience once more, especially this particular audience. I have had something to do with the Conference of Charities and Correction in this great State, and it gives me great pleasure indeed to be with you once again, even at no inconsiderable personal inconvenience. It was especially difficult for me to leave Washington at this time, but my conscience knocked persistently. I could not fail this time. I remember last year I promised to come and address you, but when the time came I had to be in the State of Ohio, so it was wholly impossible for me to be with you then. So I felt this time almost at any sacrifice I must come.

I wonder if it has occurred to you to question the advisability of holding this Conference at this time? It has occurred to me. The most important thing in our lives today is to bring to a successful conclusion the business of war in which we are now engaged. Is it then not trifling to distract our attention by any object other than that of waging successful war in order that peace may be secured permanently? I thought of this a good deal as I was coming up on the train today. And this is the way it presents itself to me. Accident and illness in industry are bound to occur and to increase because of the speeding up of industry, which must occur in order to enable us to carry out the enterprise that we have engaged in. It is then just as productive for us to consider how we shall best safeguard the interests of the workers in all our factories, on all our farms, as to engage in the manufacture of munitions, clothing, tentcloths, raising of potatoes and hogs, or any of the other things that are to be consumed in this great struggle.

What is social insurance? I think social insurance can best be defined as community risk-bearing from which all private

profiteering and competitive cost have been eliminated. It applies to property as well as to personal risks. It applies to fire insurance, hail insurance, cyclone insurance in property insurance, just as well as to accident insurance, sickness insurance, invalidity and old age insurance, unemployment insurance, death or life insurance as we have come to call it. Usually, however, we think only of personal insurance when we speak of social insurance. Community risk-bearing, from which all private profit has been eliminated, that and that alone is social insurance in the strict interpretation of the term. We use the term very, very loosely indeed; quite generally workmen's compensation is termed social insurance. As a matter of fact, we have almost no social insurance in this country. Social insurance is not necessarily carried on by the State. It can be carried on by mutual associations not for private profit, and I am not sure but that is one of the best forms social insurance can take.

Very few States in the United States have anything that can correctly be denominated social insurance. Only those States which have State funds in which the insured can take out his insurance or which provide for mutual non-profit associations have anything that can properly be called social insurance. Even in these States the workmen's compensation insurance carried by the State Fund is often not social because competition still persists, the State Fund merely adding another competitor. The rates are competitive rates made for the purpose of securing profits to the private insurance companies.

An address on social insurance in this country then would resemble a treatise on snakes in Ireland. But don't congratulate yourselves prematurely. A great deal need be said about the need for more social insurance in this country.

I have said some things about insurance companies on certain occasions, things that needed to be said. In this whole debate about social insurance there has been too much of the personal element injected into the discussions; there has been more energy expended in trying to put an opponent in the wrong than in trying to put the subject right. Perhaps I, too, have been guilty of that offense to some extent. I certainly do not underestimate the value of our private insurance companies; they were on the job early and have done enormous productive work in advancing the principle of insurance, but there are certain social risks, hazards

of life, that the insurance companies have not covered adequately, and so far as can now be discovered they are incapable of ever covering these risks adequately at a cost the people can afford to pay.

The cost of accident compensation insurance is something rather difficult to estimate, especially in this country, because the laws are so various, and the administrations equally various, if not more so.

I was somewhat astonished that my good friend, Mr. Cox, should refer to the cost of insurance against these risks of life in the usual orthodox manner. I thought he was not entirely orthodox, I had hoped he was not, at least, in this respect. It is usual to refer to the cost of insurance as coming into existence only when you insure. No greater fallacy was ever perpetrated than that.

Was there no burden of industrial accidents before industrial accident insurance was invented? The burden was there and it was borne by those who could not escape bearing it—the working people. They could not shift it, they could not dodge it, they had to bear it because they were the least able to bear it of any members of society. Casualty insurance came along. It bore the burden, part of it, but the injured workman had to pay dearly for the insurance he was able to purchase from casualty insurance companies. This ostrich method of shifting responsibility, of shifting burdens by burying the head in the sand does not appeal to me in the least. These burdens exist. They must be borne. The question then to be solved is exactly, as your presiding officer presented it, "What is the best way of equalizing the burden so that it can be borne most easily, so that society can profit most by the burden-bearing?"

We want the insurance companies to help in everything they can do. Can they insure under workmen's compensation so as to smooth out the inequalities, equalize the burdens that exist because of industrial accidents, and at a cost that will not seriously disturb industry? Well, they are insuring in almost all the States under workmen's compensation laws. I have been observing the operation of these laws with great interest, and I must say that I feel very much concerned about our workmen's compensation laws, I greatly fear we are drifting back to the old employers' liability basis of claim adjustment. The Commissions are so over-

burdened with work that they have no time to do anything but adjust claims.

There are three great duties that society owes its working people: first of all, and far the most important, to preserve them against disability either from accident or illness; second, to restore those unfortunate ones who suffer disability in spite of all precaution, to restore them as speedily and completely as possible to industry; and, third, and least important of all, though by no means unimportant, to compensate those who have suffered injury either through illness or accident, to compensate them for their disability, for their economic loss when they have suffered loss.

These are the three great objects we should strive for. If I thought that social insurance, accident, invalidity, old age, fire insurance, or any kind of social insurance would do nothing to cut down the hazards of life I would not feel much interest in it. For that matter private insurance for profit has diminished the hazards of life. I think the most notable chapter in the history of insurance companies is the noble work they have done in cutting down the death rate. The casualty companies have done most excellent work in preventing casualties by holding elevator construction up to standard, and standardizing construction in many other lines. That is immensely more important than either paying claims or getting out of paying claims.

Now I believe that the casualty insurance companies should as soon as conveniently possible be absolutely excluded from writing insurance under workmen's compensation laws, and I have very good reasons for holding that belief. Whenever I sit in with a State Compensation Commission or Industrial Accident Board I am made very impatient by the proceedings there. These Boards and Commissions, as I have indicated, have very little time to give to the prevention of accidents—the most important work that they could do; they have less time for restoring the injured workman as completely and as speedily as possible to work. There is almost no medical inspection or supervision, or adequate medical, surgical, and hospital treatment accorded to injured workmen. Just the other day I saw a man before one of our State boards whose hands were absolutely crippled, making him a total permanent cripple. He had them mashed in hot callender rolls in a rubber factory. The question referred by the Board to the medical ad-

visor was what adjustment could be made, what lump sum must be paid under the law to this man, a totally helpless cripple, unable to earn a cent in his present condition? The question was not what could be done to restore this man so that he could earn a fractional part of a man's wage, or perhaps a whole man's wage. That was not the question at all that was put up to the medical advisor. He was not asked what could be done, how speedily or how completely the injured workman could be restored and what it would cost. Merely, how much are we obliged to pay him to get rid of him, to wipe him off the books? Not a pleasant thing to think of! The physician said the man really has two fingers, one on each hand that are totally disabled, but he can be fixed up so that he can earn a large part of a full man's wage, can probably be wholly self-supporting if you can induce him to submit to a very simple operation. Now this sort of thing is going on constantly and it causes me very great concern. Of course, if the accident compensation insurance were carried by the community instead of by private profit-seeking insurance companies, the pressure to bring about lump sum settlements would be greatly diminished. It would not be eliminated. It would require brains and watchfulness to administer State insurance or mutual insurance funds wisely, but social insurance would help a lot to give the permanently injured man a square deal.

Another thing that is almost as bad is the way hearings are conducted. Boards and Commissions are occupied almost entirely in hearing and adjusting claims, which is or should be the most unimportant part of their work in reality. I have heard scores of cases with the Commissions, and in every instance both the injured workman or his relatives in the case of a fatal accident and the private insurance carrier have been represented by lawyers, whether the carrier is an insurance company or the employer of the man. We are drifting back to the administrative system obtaining under the old employers' liability laws. Can you imagine anything worse than that? It is really in danger of growing worse than the old employers' liability system because under that system damage suits were heard by men who were at least trained lawyers, men who knew something of the traditions of the courts, who had some respect for the traditional ideas of what constitutes evidence. The cases now are tried before Commissions who are not educated in the law as a rule, who do not respect precedents,

who have grown up in no tradition of veneration for the majesty of court procedure. The more honest and straightforward the Commissioner, the more is he likely to become impatient with the bunk questions asked by the bunk lawyers of a still bunker physician. The more likely is he to make a snap judgment that may work a grave injustice to one of the parties in the case—perhaps to both. Judgments are more likely to go wrong in a court procedure conducted before a bench of Commissioners who don't know anything about court procedure than they are before a regularly constituted court.

The only thing that can be said for this is that it is likely to be a little bit more speedy, but some of the Commissions, notably that of Illinois, are held down to all the red tape and formality that doth hedge about the ordinary common pleas courts, so their proceedings cannot proceed much more rapidly than can the proceedings before the Supreme Court of the United States.

The responsibility for smuggling the ambulance-chasing lawyer back into the game and for complicating and delaying procedure rests with the lawyer drafters of compensation acts, ably abetted by the insurance companies. It is most unfortunate. We need a lot of new legislation, and a lot of the old wiped off the statute books. We have gone on a wrong path.

The casualty insurance companies have borne their full share in balling things up, and the only way the matter can be straightened out is to exclude them from writing insurance under workmen's compensation laws. I do not want to do them any injustice. I don't want to do the saloons any injustice; they represent capital invested That was rather an unfortunate utterance, wasn't it? I didn't mean by placing the saloons and insurance companies in juxtaposition to insinuate that there is any similarity in their functions or in the results achieved I apologize It was an unfortunate slip but it illustrated the point very well, didn't it?

In order to have any kind of insurance written cheaply it must be written on a monopolistic or pseudo-monopolistic basis. Now let that soak in. Accident insurance written either by the State as State insurance, or written by pseudo-monopolistic mutual associations would cut out most of the fuss and feathers Mr. Cox referred to. He told you how difficult it is for the insurance people to persuade people to become insured and he wants

people to be free moral agents. That is fine. I would like to be a free moral agent myself, but when I was working in the lumber woods I would have been very pleased indeed if I had been obliged to pay for accident insurance. I nearly chopped my leg off once. I did not think anything about it then, but I have thought a good deal about it since. Probably I would be begging now if I were still alive at all, if the axe had swung just two inches to the left. I have thought about that a good deal. I most certainly wish that some compulsion could take hold of this great sloppy mess that we call the United States, make it sit up straight and put a backbone in it, compel it to do something and do it right, and do it systematically, and do it economically. There is not any question about it, the cost of accident insurance is a mighty serious matter at the present time as carried on. The cost of industrial accident insurance could be cut in two if the insurance were carried either as a State monopoly or a State monopoly tempered by employers' mutual associations. That is exactly what should be done.

Furthermore, there should be no distinction made between an industrial and a non-industrial accident. A man is just as dead if he gets run over by a street car while strolling home as if he gets forty tons of molten steel poured on him in the course of employment. It really does not make any difference to him or his family which kind of accident kills him. Our accident insurance ought to include non-industrial risks just the same as industrial risks. We do not know how many accidents take place outside of industry, for that matter we do not know how many take place inside. I do not like to blow my own horn too vociferously, but I hope sometime to get some order and standardization into our industrial accident statistics. We have been working pretty strenuously for several years, and we have succeeded in working out classifications of industries, causes of accidents and nature of accidents, and we are now working out standard tables. When we get them completed, then the workmen's compensation states, at least, will be able to furnish their accident statistics in such a way that we can compare accident rates, State by State, industry by industry, and year by year. As it is now you cannot compare the accident rate of one State with that of any other State in the Union. New Jersey is the worst of all the Compensation States, because it hasn't any accident statistics at all, comparable or in-

comparable. I will say this for the New Jersey law, however, while elective in a way, it operates like a compulsory law, and includes everybody except casual labor. Only one other political division of the United States does as well as New Jersey as far as scope is concerned, and that is Hawaii. New Jersey is on a level with Hawaii. But that is about all you can say for the New Jersey law. It is not adequate, the compensation is not sufficient, no insurance against losses from accident is required of the employer. It is pretty bad in that regard. We surely ought to cover non-industrial accidents as well as industrial accidents—perhaps in a separate law; but they ought to be covered.

Again what difference does it make whether a workman is disabled because of illness or because of accident? We surely ought to have our compensation laws broadened in scope, so as to include industrial diseases. But what is industrial disease? I cannot tell, and I know you cannot tell. You can tell some of them, but you cannot distinguish any considerable number of them, and when you get outside the purely industrial diseases what will you do with the other diseases that afflict humanity? I have heard it said a good many times that there is only an inconsiderable amount of illness among the people of the United States, that we are too healthy to need social insurance to carry this burden. Furthermore it has been said in my presence that illness is not of much consequence in this country anyhow, because we are so prosperous. A man who is ill simply loses time during his illness and goes back to work. Well now, I do not want to stop to discuss that question. You people engaged in social work know better than that. What difference does it make whether our illness rate is higher or lower than that of Germany or England or any other country. Great disputes have been waged as to whether the average number of days' illness per inhabitant in this country were nine or twelve or four. Great chunks of oratory have been unloaded upon suffering humanity over that question. As a matter of fact probably all of these different statistical statements are correct. In the investigation into trade union and establishment benefit funds that my Bureau is now conducting, there have been found many inexplicable differences in illness rates, whether due to differences in reporting in local or industrial health conditions, or what, we do not know. So far as trade union benefit funds are concerned their records are almost worthless; we cannot tell

whether they mean illness or accident, they are all bunched in together, so we don't know, and it is impossible from them to determine any rate of illness. In some establishment funds it is possible to analyze the illness statistics and determine what they mean. I have in mind two establishment funds covering people whom you would expect to have about the same illness rates. One shows an illness rate, or rather an average number of days' illness per member, of twelve per annum; the other shows an average number of days' illness of only four. You cannot explain this difference from the data supplied. But why squabble about these things? We know that illness exists in a very serious degree, and that the consequence of illness in the families of working people in this country is something that cannot be neglected, something that affects vitally the whole family life, the welfare of the whole community.

I think we can take it for granted without any further discussion that the matter of illness is settled. It has often been said in justification of opposing social insurance that our death rate is the lowest death rate on record. We do have a low death rate in the registration area, but let me call your attention to the difference between the population in our registration area and that for instance of Germany, the country with which we are most often compared. It is a fact that this country has been peopled by immigrants. We have a small birth rate relatively in the registration areas of this country, and you all know without information from me that the highest death rate is among infants. We have given special attention to cutting down the infant mortality rate. High birth rate always connotes high death rate among infants. There is high death rate in Germany. That high death rate persists in Germany up to the group beginning with fifteen years of age and ending with forty-five, and then it becomes lower than our death rate, and the percentage of our population between the ages fifteen and forty-five is very considerably higher than that of Germany or any other country, simply because our population is added to greatly by immigration between those ages. That sufficiently explains our lower death rate. The death rate has nothing to do with an illness rate. If you want an illness rate you have to go out and get it. We have not got it yet. I am doing the best I can now to get it, but I must say in all frankness that it is a pretty discouraging job.

But I don't think it worth talking about. Illness exists. Supposing it does not exist so much as in Germany. I don't believe that for a minute, but let it go for the sake of the argument. Granted every claim made as to the healthiness of our workers, sickness is still a serious evil and should be insured against just like any other hazard of life.

I suppose I am talking too long? I always do! How many hours have I? I have really not started yet!

(THE CHAIRMAN: I think you have another minute, Doctor.)

I don't know whether that was intended as an insult or an occupational injury!

It has often been said that the voluntary agencies are taking care of illness in this country, that we do not need social insurance butting into this field, which is already adequately covered by voluntary agencies. These voluntary agencies consist of (1) trade union funds, (2) establishment funds, (3) all sorts of mutual benefit associations, and (4) casualty insurance companies writing health insurance. The task I am engaged on now is to determine how adequately voluntary agencies are carrying these very serious hazards of life, the hazards due to sickness and to accidental injuries.

As indicated already the trade union benefit funds do not know very much what they are up to really. Their benefit funds are not solely for carrying the hazard of illness. Furthermore, the trade unions include only a small fractional part of the working people in this country. There are, according to the best estimate, about forty million people in this country that may be denominated as people engaged in gainful occupations. And there certainly are not as many as three million of those people who are members of trade unions, either in the American Federation of Labor or outside of it. And of these three million people about half are covered by some kind of a sick benefit fund—this is the roughest sort of estimate, but based on figures actually obtained by my agents, so that it has some value at least.

Now how adequate are these benefit funds for caring for the burden of sickness? I should say from a superficial examination of them that they were wholly inadequate. Most of them merely provide for money payments in case of illness. There is no sickness supervision, no medical attention, no hospital treatment what-

soever. The sums that the sick workingman may draw range from five to seven dollars, with a few in excess of that. How many of you would like to fall ill in order to draw five dollars a week? Not many, I think. This sum in most instances is all the family has to buy food and medicines and to pay the doctor. Some of the establishment funds provide medical attention and some few provide only medical attention and no money payment at all. I suppose that we could safely say that all told not more than a million and a quarter of the working people are members of trade union benefit funds and less than a million are covered by establishment funds. Thus less than two and a quarter million workers out of possibly forty million are covered wholly inadequately by sickness insurance as it is provided by these agencies. The number given is sufficiently large to include the mutual benefit associations, for they are rather insignificant.

Now the only other agency left then to take care of these forty million odd working people is the casualty companies. And what are they doing? I tried to find out, but I could not. They are doing very little.

The old line insurance companies are interested in writing health insurance not at all; some of them write industrial insurance, which is funeral benefit or burial insurance. I do not need to go into that, but I do wish to say that industrial insurance comes awfully high. I do not mean to say it does not accomplish some good among the families that take it. But how adequate is it when you stop to think that according to Dr. Rubinow the amount that is paid for industrial insurance, namely, burial insurance, in this country would purchase insurance against all the hazards of life in Germany? It seems to me that should make us sit up and take notice.

In other words, insurance is essentially a monopolistic business. It can be carried on immensely more cheaply by a State monopoly or quasi-monopoly, regulated and supervised by the State, that insures workers automatically. It cuts out all the expense of going out to seek the working man to drag him into insurance; it cuts out the enormous expense of collecting the premiums. It cuts out the expense of placing investments of the funds collected; it cuts out most of the expense of accounting and making actuarial estimates of future liabilities. These are

the great overhead charges in insurance as carried on by private profit-making concerns.

It seems to me it is self-evident that social insurance is bound to come. I do not want it to come till people are ready for it. I suppose I will be called a Socialist, but that does not frighten me. I think that time has passed when a thing can be damned by denominating it Socialism. If Social Insurance is Socialism, that is the strongest argument for Socialism I have yet heard. If this be Socialism, let's have some more of the same. If a thing is a good thing, let us have it whether it is Socialism or not. It certainly is a good thing if we can enable the working people of the country to get insurance that will cover adequately the risks they must necessarily run at a figure they can pay. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: It is rather difficult when you are a chairman and you have a friend throwing brickbats at you occasionally. I must say, however, that I am glad I do not go quite so far as he does. I have sometimes criticised the federal and the State government and pointed out their inefficiency, but I don't believe I have ever endowed them as he has to-night. He has confessed, even to his own detriment, that he cannot do the things he would like to do, and yet he is one of the efficient officials of which we would like to have more. It seems to be the way the government is run.

I hope I was not misunderstood when I referred to the cost of this insurance. When we consider the question of cost we find in Massachusetts a commission reporting the cost of health insurance for the State of Massachusetts at \$23,000,000; it was estimated that in New York State it would cost \$50,000,000 or \$60,000,000 a year. These are facts which we as citizens must consider. We see Dr. Meeker approaching the subject from the sentimental side, and talking as public officials usually talk, without knowing where to get the money except by way of imposing taxes for the purpose. The business man looks at it as business and tries to see where it is going to be provided for. We have a wonderfully efficient business country. There is no place where insurance has been built up as it has in this country. I want to say as a business man that, at least as far as business is concerned, I do not consider this country "a sloppy mess."

We have to consider these things from a business stand-

point. But I am talking as if I were not chairman of this meeting.

The opening of the discussion will be made by Mr. Frederick S. Crum, who will speak in place of Mr. Hoffman.

"FACTS AND FALLACIES OF COMPULSORY HEALTH INSURANCE"

**Frederick I. Crum, Ph.D., Assistant Statistician, Prudential Life
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I think any consideration of so great a problem as social, or particularly health insurance, to which I shall largely limit myself, should involve the presentation of both sides as strongly as possible, and Dr. Meeker has presented the compulsory side with much force.

Dr. Hoffman and many others take the point of view that health insurance should be voluntary rather than compulsory. Dr. Hoffman has written a pamphlet, "Facts and Fallacies of Compulsory Health Insurance," pointing out in twenty-nine conclusions what are his opinions and beliefs, based on the facts as he has been able to determine them.

First of all, he points out that this government was founded upon the principle that that government which governs least governs best, and secondly, that this is a democratic government and opposed to compulsion where we can get the same or nearly the same results by voluntary methods.

There is an important point that Dr. Meeker did not bring out. So-called compulsory insurance divides the people of the United States into two wage-earning classes, those receiving wages of \$1,200 or less, and the others. Those receiving \$1,200 or less will get this compulsory insurance by paying forty per cent. of the cost, the government paying twenty per cent. and employers the other forty per cent. That establishes at once class legislation, and that Dr. Hoffman and many others are vigorously opposed to.

Another important point is that at the present time, as Dr. Meeker admits, we do not know what the voluntary agencies are doing or able to do in this country. That whole matter is more

or less unknown. This year, so far, two quite elaborate reports by State Commissions on Social Insurance have appeared, the Special Commissions on Social Insurance of Massachusetts and of California. The California commission was appointed in 1915 and worked until after July, 1916, and the report is unfavorable to the specific plan for compulsory health insurance as proposed by the secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation.

The Massachusetts commission very emphatically state that they will require at least another year of rigorous investigation before they are ready to propose legislation, and then are in grave doubt whether the compulsory plan is what they would want or recommend. Both of these commissions admit that present knowledge is insufficient for such drastic and far-reaching legislation as would be involved in the enactment of a compulsory health insurance law.

On the point of average number of days' sickness, I think we ought to have the facts before we have the legislation. We have a vicious habit in this country of passing laws before we are quite sure what is needed. Dr. Hoffman says: "The alarming assertions regarding the alleged physical deterioration of the American people are grossly misleading. . . . The alarming assertions regarding the prevailing rate of sickness in American industry are quite contrary to the evidence revealed by means of trustworthy community sickness surveys of representative American cities, indicative of a decidedly lower rate of incidence than is known to prevail in Germany and Austria, regardless of nearly thirty years of compulsory sickness insurance experience. Thus, for Boston, Mass., the average sickness loss for males is only 6.5 days per annum, and for Rochester, N. Y., the loss is 7.0 days, against more than 9.2 days for Germany and 9.5 days for Austria. For the State of California, according to the Social Insurance Commission, the loss is only six days, and for a selected group of workingmen in various establishments of San Francisco and Oakland, only 2.9 days. The assumed general average loss of nine days by the United States Industrial Commission is merely conjecture and guesswork opinion.

"The alarming assertions regarding the alleged physical deterioration of the American people are grossly misleading and contrary to the facts, which prove that in the registration area

of the United States there has been no very marked increase in the mortality from preventable degenerative disease during the working period of adult life. No thoroughly qualified investigation has been made into the subject and the available statistical information is of doubtful intrinsic value. A material reduction in the adult death rate depends primarily upon a more rational mode of living, improved habits, better methods of early diagnosis, and further progress in the practice of medicine and general surgery. There is no evidence to prove that compulsory sickness insurance has brought about a measurable decrease, if any, in the degenerative diseases in the countries in which such insurance has been in operation for many years.

"To the extent that industries or occupations predispose to physical infirmity and premature death, the solution of the problem lies largely in the direction of adequate compensation for such diseases in conformity to well-considered modern workmen's compensation laws. The sanitary control of work places, and the gradual elimination of occupational diseases, depend chiefly upon the more rigid enforcement of laws of safety and sanitation in their specific relation to industrial life. Compulsory health insurance is not required for the attainment of this purpose, but, quite to the contrary, such a system has almost invariably proved an inducement to indifference and neglect, by providing pecuniary relief during needlessly prolonged periods of alleged incapacity for work.

"The assertions and allegations regarding the remarkable health progress of Germany, attributable to social insurance, are contradicted by the fact that the sanitary advancement of the United States has been fully as satisfactory and possibly even more so, as regards tuberculosis and infant mortality. There has been no marked decline during recent years in the sickness rate of German wage-workers, which, as a matter of official record, remains considerably in excess of the corresponding rate of sickness known to prevail among the wage-workers of this country."

The proponents of compulsory health insurance have even said that the working life span of German workmen has been increased by twelve years largely as a direct result of compulsory health insurance. The best authorities in Europe maintain that this assertion is false.

The primary function of insurance is to distribute risk, not

to prevent loss. The primary purpose of health insurance should not be to prevent sickness. We have our public health organizations for that specific purpose. It is their primary purpose to improve health and sanitation and use every possible means to prevent sickness and increase longevity.

Dr. Hoffman has ten paragraphs in addition to these conclusions, which he calls "Practical Suggestions," wherein he points out how many of these present evils can be remedied by voluntary effort, more adequately and at less cost than by means of such an elaborate, expensive and undemocratic scheme as that advocated by the proponents of compulsory health insurance.

THE CHAIRMAN: There are a number of commissions studying this question, and we have one in this State, and I notice in the audience Ex-Senator Colby, who is on that commission.

MR. COLBY: Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I appear to-night only in the character of one of those bunk commissioners to whom Dr. Meeker referred.

DR. MEEKER: No, it was the lawyers and the doctors.

MR. COLBY: I happen to be a lawyer. (Laughter.)

At our last meeting the Commission on Old Age Pensions passed a resolution endorsing State compulsory health insurance law, with a supplementary remark to the effect that we should start a campaign this spring, and turn over to Robert Flemming the preparation of our bill, and go before every civic body that would hear us before the Legislature convened, when our bill could be introduced. It is evident from the remarks to-night that the fight is on, and I rather suspect it is going to be sanguinary. I doubt if Mr. Cox would issue a policy now to any of the participants. During the last ten years I happen to know of at least twenty-three different measures enacted by legislatures for the benefit of the public, and have had it proved to me by those opposed to these measures that they would all be failures. You can prove anything by statistics.

It has been suggested that we should wait until we get all the facts. If you do that you will be dead before you begin. You will never get all the facts in any great social problem.

When I heard this Conference was to be held I wanted our commission to be represented here by the person who knew more about this subject than anybody in the world—not in New Jersey or the United States, but in the world—so we took pains to get

Dr. Rubinow, the greatest authority on health insurance anywhere. And I know you will be glad to hear from him, with the consent of your chairman.

Dr. I. M. Rubinow, Executive Secretary, American Social Insurance Committee, American Medical Association

This is very embarrassing indeed. I did not expect any such introduction from Mr. Colby. I do not claim to be the greatest authority on this subject in the world. If I can claim anything at all, it may be that I discovered Germany. I have added very little except a study of experience that has developed in ten European countries. Germany is not as popular an example as she was a year or two ago, but we might learn something even from our enemies.

Other branches of social insurance were so carefully covered by Dr. Meeker that I can limit myself to the question of health insurance.

It is impossible to cover the whole field within a few minutes. Dr. Hoffman has mentioned twenty-nine conclusions against it. If I answered those, and got twenty-nine conclusions for it, we would not finish to-night and would be still working at it to-morrow—and the first of May is an international holiday, so that would not do. However, two or three interesting points might be commented on. The first is the point Mr. Colby made concerning the necessity for having all the facts before you are ready to legislate. It sounds reasonable to say you must have all the facts; you can always appeal to the people on that ground, and because it sounds so reasonable it is an excellent way of delaying legislation. There is no limit to the facts you might accumulate. As a matter of fact, all reasonable people do proceed to collect facts, just as Dr. Meeker is collecting facts, just as the commission in California have been collecting facts, just as a similar commission in New York would have collected facts if it had been established, but the very people who are urging the collection of facts are always opposing the people who would collect the facts. So they are opposing the commission in New York.

The second point is this. I wondered how many facts were known about industrial accidents, when industrial insurance began. They knew less about death rates when they started life insurance than they do now about accidents. And in social legislation it is unfortunately often true that you have to legislate

first and then get the facts. The Germans have a remedy against a serious disease. Must you get the number of people who suffer from the disease before you can adopt it? The question is, does the remedy work? Perhaps Dr. Meeker has assumed that you have studied the problem for a long time, and some of you undoubtedly have, but not all of you. I think I can give you an illustration of how it works. We will have to go to Germany for the best illustration.

Take one German community, Leipzig, population 750,000; they have 210,000 wage-workers all insured against sickness, and if a man or his family is sick, that institution in which they are insured takes care of them. How much sickness did they have? 90,000 cases in one year for financial aid and more for medical aid; 10,000 cases were sent to hospitals, 4,000 to convalescent homes, 4,000 mothers taken care of; four institutions supported there for chronic diseases that require special treatment. Every wage-worker in that town, and it is true of every German city, and cities in nine other countries also, looks forward to that institution or a similar one for assistance, and it is not done in any charitable way. You will probably admit that the greatest cause of destitution is sickness. Mr. Burritt, of the A. I. C. P., said that last year sickness was almost their only problem. Here is the richest period of the richest country of the world, a country that is making more money than it knows what to do with, for the time being there is no unemployment, but while the problem of the sick person continues there is still a certain amount of destitution, no matter how high the wages are, and the charitable institutions have to battle with it. Compare the charity method of chasing around for contributions, making a man a pauper, taking charity aid in a dispensary and a hospital, compare that with the German way—ten thousand cases in the hospital and none of them subjects of charity.

How do they do it? Not by one millionaire contributing money for the building of a hospital. It is a self-supporting scheme. They collect annually ten million marks in that one city. two and a half million dollars in one community for sickness among wage-workers. You cannot speak of the cost or of the burden, because 92½ per cent. of it goes back in service, and only the rest is used in administering the expenses.

I have heard a man argue against sickness insurance on the

plea that it was too expensive in New York. He was president of an insurance company, which casualty company sells health insurance to the amount of about \$250,000; what the insurance people get by the premiums is \$100,000 of benefits, the agents \$100,000 in commissions, and the insurance company uses \$50,000 on expenses and profits—and he spoke of the high cost of European insurance!

Moreover, it is very interesting how differently they view the problem of cost in considering Europe and this country. Dr. Meeker quoted some comparisons between cost in this country and Germany. I don't mean to say that by establishing insurance we could have it at the cost they have it for. Things are cheaper in Germany.

People talk about its being a burden on the German people and that it is breaking down industry, and quote statistics about the increased cost of social insurance. But when you talk about insurance in this country the figures of the increase are quoted as an indication of prosperity. Why different arguments for the same phenomenon? except that in Europe you have 90 per cent. for compensation and only 10 per cent. as an additional burden.

I would not dare to say the things Dr. Meeker said. Being born abroad, I might be considered a traitor if I did. But we have sometimes 60 per cent. for cost and 40 per cent. loading, and more than that. But that part of the premium which is returned to the insured in benefits is not a cost; it is simply a question of distribution.

Supposing it does cost fifty million in the State of New York; it means that probably out of the fifty million only five million will be an additional burden. But over forty-five million are a load which is going to be carried by other shoulders and collectively by shoulders more able to carry than those that are carrying now.

Then there is another question, the question of indemnity as against prevention. I sympathize with the point of view of Dr. Meeker, that prevention of disease or accident is more important than compensation for it. But this may become a dangerous argument. You can say, then we do not want insurance, but a method of prevention. But we want both; we want all the protective work we can do, but we know very well that to think of a time when we shall not have any industrial accidents or any

sickness is to think of the millennium. We are going to have sickness and accidents, do what we will; what we want to do is to recuperate people as rapidly as possible and also to compensate, and that is not a small matter. From a social point of view, the man who is perfectly helpless might as well be killed. But from his own point of view it is a different matter. If Dr. Meeker had had that leg chopped off I think he would have liked indemnity. So do the millions of people who are sick want indemnity. They get it even now, but in an undignified, charitable way.

Again, the argument is made that voluntary insurance is better than compulsory insurance. We hear the statement that voluntary insurance can accomplish everything that compulsory insurance has accomplished. We hear also that voluntary insurance has accomplished nothing that is worth while. These two arguments we get side by side.

How are we to prove that voluntary insurance can accomplish anything? We have no statistics that we can rely on. I have spent some time studying sickness, and it is true that as far as our records are concerned we seem to show a lower sick rate than some parts of Europe. But the better the system of health insurance the higher the sick rate. For the purpose of an efficient sickness scheme involves a higher sick rate, involves people staying away from work when they ought to, instead of going back to work when they are not fit to. During the thirty-five years that the German law has been improving, the sickness rate has been growing, but the death rate has been getting less. The American trade union gives benefits for ten weeks, but does not give anything for the first week, then pays five dollars a week. On the other side they pay 50 or 60 per cent. of wages for twenty-six or thirty-three weeks, give hospital accommodations, etc. A man goes to work here before he is well; in Germany he stays away till he is well. A man won't stay away from work if he has to pay his doctor and keep his family; he has to have his wages. The whole problem reduces itself to this: Do we think a man's family, when he is sick, has to live as usual or not? Do we think a man needs a physician and a hospital, and do we think the co-operative way of paying is better than the individual way of begging for it? Do we believe that an appeal to charity is an American way and co-operation is a German way? Do we want to say in the same breath that we cannot afford a scheme that

Germany and England, and such rich countries like Roumania and Bulgaria and Russia can afford, that we cannot afford it (we, the richest country in the world), and on the other hand, that we are too rich to need it? That would mean, of course, that our workmen are too rich to need it and our employers are too poor to pay it.

I happen to have been born in Russia, and I have made myself obnoxious by urging social insurance, and it has been argued that because semi-civilized, autocratic Russia had it we ought not to have it. Well, fortunately, since March 15 that argument cannot be used any longer. I can say quite frankly now what I used to think before, that we have some things we can teach you. But Russia did not get its social insurance because it had an autocratic government, but notwithstanding that it had an autocratic government. The movement for health insurance began in 1905. The government developed comprehensive plans for old age and sickness insurance at that time when there was danger of a revolution, and then as the revolution died down the plans died down, too, and the plan in 1912 was not nearly as good as in 1905. If health insurance is only fit for autocratic Germany and monarchic Great Britain and old Russia, then you would expect there would be a demand for its destruction in new Russia; but, instead of that, you hear that one of the first definite promises of the new government was for a substantial extension of the social insurance system in Russia. The head of the American labor movement is against this. No one respects Mr. Gompers more than I do, and I regret to find a man of his influence and sincerity on the other side, but when I read the other day in the Journal of the American Medical Association that Mr. Gompers is opposed to compulsory health insurance and therefore organized labor is opposed to it—which is not true, because it is an individual matter with him—I noticed that it was not pointed out that Mr. Gompers is opposed to all forms of insurance, and especially industrial and life insurance, and that the same resolution in which he expressed himself as opposed to social insurance contained the statement that he went on record as opposed to any form of commercial insurance.

Now there are arguments against health insurance. There are specific arguments. I am not opposed to class legislation. But I am not surprised if I find opposition among employers.

There is very definite opposition from commercial companies, and that is natural. But I think all the opposition can be overcome.

A year and a half ago it might still have been doubtful, but things have changed rapidly. Look, for instance, to the State of California. About two years ago the commission of that State was organized with five members, only one of whom knew anything about social insurance—the other four were from Missouri. But since then they came out with a unanimous report in favor of compulsory social insurance in a mutual way, practically accepting every doctrine of social insurance. The only reason why they did not persist as far as legislation was because of constitutional difficulties. But finding them, they did not stop half way. They introduced a constitutional amendment which, according to my latest information, has passed, which has the support of the Governor that was and the Governor that is, and they will reappoint the commission not only to get more facts, but much more in order to agitate among the public for two years so that the constitutional amendment may be approved by the people of California. It is propaganda and education that we want more than dry facts. (Applause.)

(The Session was adjourned.)

Tuesday Morning, May 1, 1917

FAMILY PROBLEMS

Henry L. DeForest, Plainfield, Chairman

THE CHAIRMAN: I do not know what the term "Family Problems" means to you. I have to confess that the phrase when discussed by some friends of mine on the way over on Sunday night seemed to provoke some mirth on the score of my being mixed up with it; these neighbors of mine seemed to think that whenever there was a problem to be discussed in my neighborhood I was apt not to be on the spot.

But family problems, in the sense that we are to deal with them here, mean that family down the street that cannot make both ends meet, and if anything is fundamental in any community program, it is the consideration of that family.

Mr. Murphy put it very aptly when he said the other evening that we want to go as far as love can wisely go. Love expressed in terms of public relief may be one thing and in private relief may have a different standard, but the "wisely" must be in both. And as Mr. Burns told us, we cannot wisely shoot over the heads of the majority of the community. The average tax-payer has his standard of what he thinks is fair, and the average fellow with money in his pocket to contribute has his standard of what is fair in his mind, and we cannot wisely shoot over the heads of these average representatives. We have to bring them along with us or we get into trouble.

We are going to hear about "The Essentials of a Community Program with Respect to Family Problems" from a man who I think is better qualified than most of us to talk on it. He has lived it, he has taught it, and he has got a good heart in it, a heart that is solid and yet soft.

THE ESSENTIALS OF A COMMUNITY PROGRAM WITH RESPECT TO FAMILIES

Prof. Porter R. Lee, New York School of Philanthropy

In an old-fashioned living room which is associated with the experiences of my boyhood hung two old colored prints. They picture two different scenes in the schoolhouse of a little

German village. In the first the schoolmaster, seated behind his rude desk, is listening with an expression of interest to the story of an old grandmother who has brought her grandson to be enrolled in the school. The young man, possibly ten years old, as he leans against the desk displays much less interest in the proceedings than either his grandmother or the schoolmaster.

It is a primitive sort of educational institution, common enough in the early days of the nineteenth century when the picture was drawn, and not uncommon to-day. The children are of varied ages, and they sit on hard, backless benches in the one room of the school. In a corner is a high stool, over which hangs a cap, both ready for use when the school dunce, by failing in his lessons, requires their special form of treatment. On the teacher's desk lies a rod, of proportions which would have satisfied the disciplinary standards of King Solomon, ready to supplement the cap and stool whenever they alone fail to secure from the dunce the desired educational response.

The plea of the grandmother was evidently successful; for the second picture shows us the same scene, with the same characters, several months later. This time, however, the schoolmaster is doing the talking; and from his gesture we judge his text to be hopeless stupidity of the small boy, who is now seated upon the dunce's stool with the dunce's cap upon his head. After months of the most faithful application of contemporary educational methods no impression has been made upon the boy; and the schoolmaster is returning him to his grandmother, probably with the assurance that he is destined to come to some bad end. This interpretation of the two pictures was first given me at the age of eight by the venerable lady in whose house they hung; and such was my admiration for her common sense that I have never questioned it.

The schoolmaster of these two pictures is evidently not an unfeeling man. His face is not that of one who flogs for the sake of flogging, or who rejoices in the use of the cap and stool. It is rather the face of one who is faithful in the performance of his duty, and who would follow without question the educational methods of his professional ancestors.

Turning to modern ideas of education, we look in vain for such a conception as the dunce. Like the slave, the witch, and possibly the absolute monarch, he appears only in the pages of

history. Instead of stool, cap and rod, we find in our modern educational equipment an important and well-organized department wherein doctor, nurse, psychologist, social worker and specially equipped teacher are working to meet the needs of the backward school child. The treatment of the backward school child and the treatment of the dunce have nothing in common save this: they are directed toward the same ends; for the dunce of an older generation is the backward school child of to-day. The dunce has changed none of his characteristics; but we who are responsible for dealing with him have changed radically.

What has been responsible for the change in our attitude towards the school dunce? First of all, no doubt, a reaction against the harshness of traditional methods of treating him. The humane instinct sooner or later leads us to reject brutal methods of dealing with men, helpless men in particular, especially if those methods do not get results. And the method of the stool, cap and rod does not get results with the school dunce. Despite the flogging and the humiliation, the boy who cannot learn remains a boy who cannot learn; and under such circumstances ideals and instincts of compassion will sooner or later lead us to condemn such methods.

Of much greater importance, however, in explaining the change in our attitude towards the dunce is the fact that we know more about him. When we lost faith in our assumptions regarding him and in our traditional way of treating him, we began to study him, in order to base our treatment upon a knowledge of his needs. What have we learned as a result of our study of the backward school child, the dunce described in modern terms?

We have learned that he sometimes has defective eyesight, which prevents his seeing the lessons he is set to study. We have learned that he is sometimes undernourished, which means the low vitality that makes mental alertness impossible. We have learned that he sometimes has other physical defects, such as adenoids and defective teeth, which make him sluggish and not responsive to the stimuli of the school room. We have learned that he is sometimes obstinate, wilful and hard to manage, least of all by the method of humiliation and punishment. We have learned that he is sometimes not normal mentally, that the substance of which his brain is made is not fine enough to permit his learning as other children do.

We have not learned these things by accident. Rather we have deliberately used in our study all the knowledge which science and human experience have given us. The result is that we no longer apply one general method to all backward school children; but we study them individually, and using the best discernment, resourcefulness and skill at our command, we try to do for each one that which will best meet his particular needs. We do not think that we have nothing more to learn regarding backwardness in school children; but we know that we are making progress. The new methods enable us to do more for such children than the old ones did; and both the children and the community are the gainers.

In the field of relief-giving we have inherited traditions which are precisely analogous to the stool, cap and rod method of dealing with the school dunce. From time immemorial we have recognized primarily in the poor that condition which has led us to describe them as pauper, destitute, needy, necessitous, etc., terms which imply a lack of sufficient income for the bare needs of existence. In our desire to deal with them according to their needs, we have therefore relied almost exclusively upon the giving of alms, money or its equivalent in material things. Our modern ideas of relief, however, have rejected this simple prescription for the miseries of the poor, precisely as we have rejected the stool, cap and rod as a prescription for the dunce, and for the same reasons.

In the first place, we have seen that the needs of the poor cannot be relieved by alms alone. Usually the pauper relieved is a pauper still; and the miseries which go with that condition not only persist when we offer him nothing but relief, but they are often actually intensified. At this our humanitarian instincts have revolted. Modern social ideals have rejected a method of dealing with the poor which both humiliates and fails to get results.

Secondly, in the light of scientific knowledge and human experience, we have abandoned our theories of relief and are basing our charitable methods upon a study of the poor themselves. What does such a study reveal? We find invariably that behind lack of income are serious disabilities. We find that those who ask for relief are sometimes sick, and therefore unable to earn enough to support themselves. We find that they are sometimes out of work despite an honest desire to provide for their own

needs. We find that they are sometimes unable because of their inefficiency to earn a wage sufficient to support them. We find that, like many other people, they sometimes drink or indulge in other bad habits which dissipate the earnings that should care for their families and lead to demoralization prejudicial to wholesome family life. We find that their homes are sometimes so poorly organized that they are easily disorganized by the desertion of the father or the neglect of the mother. We find that sometimes through sheer ignorance and despite good intentions they are unable to manage their own affairs; to make an ample income suffice for their needs, to care properly for children, especially babies, and to meet the ordinary contingencies of life with ordinary resourcefulness.

This study suggests two important facts: First, that many of these families suffer from specific handicaps, like sickness, feeble-mindedness and unemployment which prevent their maintaining themselves despite any desire to do so; second, that many of them lack the resourcefulness, skill, standards and spirit which would enable them to take advantage of quite adequate opportunities to achieve self-maintenance. These two facts are the foundations upon which all successful work in behalf of the poor must rest. Recognition of them has led to the development of programs and methods of rehabilitation which have left almsgiving and an exclusive dependence upon relief as far behind as modern methods of dealing with backward school children have left the stool, cap and rod.

What, then, are the essentials of a community program with respect to family problems? If we answer this question with our study of the needs of the poor in mind, we find five elements in such a community program:

1. A knowledge of the facts as a preliminary to treatment in each individual case.
2. The treatment of the disabilities which handicap.
3. The development of resourcefulness, skill or the spirit of self-dependence through special training or personal influence, when necessary.
4. Relief in whatever amount and of whatever kind is needed to make effective the two phases of treatment just mentioned.

5. Team work on the part of all those whose efforts are needed in the treatment of any one family.

1. The gathering of facts is a necessary preliminary step to any intelligent action. A business man who is considering Jersey City as the location for the factory which he expects to establish will inquire carefully into the prevailing rate of wages in Jersey City, the labor supply, shipping facilities, the tax rate, available sites for his factory, etc., before he makes his decision. He cannot take intelligent action without doing so. A physician before he undertakes to prescribe for a patient gathers information of many kinds first. Temperature, blood pressure, habits of life, previous history and the condition of his patient's vital organs have a significance for him even when he is called upon to treat what are apparently minor ailments. He cannot take intelligent action without making these inquiries.

Under our old standards of relief giving, the relief of the poor called for no such extensive inquiries. Relief methods which were contemporary with the cap and stool of the dunce required at best two simple facts regarding those who asked for assistance: "Does this family lack income so completely as to make outside aid necessary?" and "Are they 'worthy' (in the good old-fashioned sense), that is, are they sufficiently decent and respectable in their habits to justify the giving of such aid?" Undoubtedly at one time these simple facts were sufficient for intelligent action in the giving of relief. As we have seen, however, to-day we know more about the poor than we did formerly; and programs for relief which are based upon these meager facts leave us with an uneasy feeling that we are not going as far in our helpfulness as we are really able to go. For the same development of science and the same study of human experience which have taught us more about the poor and their needs have also given us many new and varied ways of helping them. When we depended upon the one simple prescription of relief, it did not take long to determine when it should be used. Now, however, we have many different ways of dealing with physical disability: special treatment of tuberculosis, instruction of mothers in the care of babies, medical inspection of school children, etc.; we have more extensive school facilities for children than formerly, including the kindergarten and vocational schools; through legislation we are able to deal more effectively with the man who

deserts his family; we have recreational facilities to which we can direct families in need of invigoration; and we realize that we can do much to steady and safeguard those who are threatened with mental breakdown. Moreover, we realize that skillful study enables us to adapt the familiar methods of personal influence, advice and even the giving of relief much more precisely to the needs of our clients than was ever necessary when the financial condition of our applicants was our only concern.

These two factors of greater knowledge—greater knowledge of the needs of the poor and greater knowledge of ways to help them—make the gathering of facts imperative as the first step in our treatment. A physician of national reputation remarked not long ago that whereas a generation or more ago ten minutes would have been a fair average time for a doctor to spend in diagnosing a case, the average to-day would be nearer an hour. What is responsible for the change? These same two factors of greater knowledge—greater knowledge of disease and greater knowledge of ways to treat it.

An illustration will make clear the kinds of facts which are important in the treatment of families. A woman of thirty-two, the mother of six children, applied for relief. Her husband had just recovered from an attack of blood poisoning which had incapacitated him for nearly two years. It was evident from the condition of their home that they had had no adequate income for some time, and their appearance, as well as the physician at whose suggestion they had applied for help, testified to their good qualities. Under our old tests for relief they were entirely eligible, as they were both "poor and worthy"; and accordingly relief was given them, it being understood that it would be continued only until the man could get work, which he was admonished to do. He stated that his health was now good enough to warrant his working again.

Now what were the items in this story which make the gathering of further facts necessary? That depends upon what our purpose with reference to this family is. If we plan to help them to reach the condition of self-maintenance which they have lost, we must remember that self-maintenance depends upon physical efficiency, income and the ability and disposition to live up to the responsibilities of life. From this point of view the first item calling for further information is the question of health. This

man has been ill for two years. Is he really able to resume work, and what kind of work is he fit for? During his illness his wife had supported the family by sewing and keeping boarders. Has this work, added to the care of six children and a sick husband, had a bad effect upon her health? For a large part of the two years the children may have been on short rations since the family income has been reduced. Has this affected their health?

The second item relates to employment. This application comes at a time when work is hard to find; and the man may not be fit for the first available job. He was at one time a street-car conductor. Can he secure such work now? Suppose the agency whose help he has asked knows of a job which he might fill; can he be recommended?

The third item relates to the children. I have spoken of the importance of inquiring into their physical condition; but this is not the extent of their claim upon our interest. Three of them are of school age. Are they in school? The oldest, aged twelve, will in two years be able to go to work. What sort of work will he go to? Would it be possible for this agency to give his training during the next two years the direction which will insure his taking up a vocation with a future and one suited to his special capacity, if he has any? The youngest child is a baby of a few months. Have the hardships of the months just passed interfered with the mother's giving her the proper care; and, if so, can the mother be persuaded to take the advice of a milk station, a nurse or a doctor regarding her care?

The fourth item relates to the sense of responsibility of the family, especially, of course, of the father and mother. There is reason to assume, for the time being, at any rate, that they are quite competent to manage their own affairs, if they can be assisted with some temporary income. They are apparently intelligent, they have made a good impression upon their physician, the mother seems to have shouldered uncomplainingly the entire burden of family support and management during her husband's illness and the man is eager to get to work. On the other hand, the long period of hardship may well have broken the woman's spirit. The man has been idle for many months, making slow convalescence, and such an experience is sometimes prejudicial to habits of industry, as those who have worked with tuberculosis

patients have learned. It is possible also that difficulties in finding work may further unsettle his grip upon himself.

The fifth item relates to income. Since work cannot be given the man at once, relief for a period will be necessary. Whence should it come? For a few weeks at the beginning of his illness a benefit society made weekly payments. Would the society contribute further? Are there any other natural connections of the man which would yield financial assistance at this time? Have any such been assisting him during his illness?

To get the information which even these surface considerations indicate to be desirable, several obvious sources were available, such as two of the man's former employers, several relatives, two other doctors, the benefit society, acquaintances who had known them in the neighborhoods where they had previously lived, and the teachers of the children. If further facilities for suggestions regarding the health of the various members of the family were needed, there were available any number of clinics and dispensaries where they could have been examined.

The agency to which this application came did not see fit to get any of the information which I have just discussed, beyond some indefinite evidence of the family's reliability and the statement of the lodge doctor that the man ought to be able to work. Relief was given at once and continued over a period of months. If this policy was justified (and under our old standards it was), we should have expected it to lead after a reasonable period to the re-establishment of this family in a position of independence. Certainly no other result would have been aimed at even under a policy of almsgiving.

Let us look ahead two years. The mother has become utterly broken in spirit. From the resourceful, heroic woman who struggled for two years prior to our acquaintance with her, both to support and to manage her family, she has changed into an indifferent, careless person who neither keeps a clean, attractive home, nor cares what is the condition of her children. She is in bad physical condition, owing to a serious weakness for which she refuses to undergo a second operation. The oldest girl likewise is urgently in need of an operation, which the mother refuses to permit. The oldest boy, instead of finding his way under vocational guidance to a job with a future, has gone into the messenger service in a city where this employment has been given none of

the safeguards which enlightened States have adopted. The man refuses to work. He had six jobs during one period of eight months, and left all of them for no good reasons or was discharged for doing unsatisfactory work which he was quite competent to do. He was arrested once for stealing, and was acquitted on a technicality, although his brother, who was tried for the same offense, was convicted. The parents have been brought into court for failing to send their children to school; and although throughout the period work has been plentiful, the family have twice been evicted from their home for non-payment of rent. Finally, there are two more children.

There would be a certain sort of satisfaction in being able at this point to draw conclusions from this story with mathematical precision, to say, for example, that all these disasters came to this family because important information was not gained in the first place. In work with families, however, no such clear cause and effect relationship is ever discernible. Some significant things, however, we can discover. In the first place, the one thing that was done, the giving of relief, was probably the least necessary, except for some temporary assistance, as diligent effort on the part of the agency would probably have resulted in a job for the man which would have provided the necessary income. The things which really needed attention were not discovered, because no attempt was made to discover them; and yet, as we have seen, the barest statement of the family's need, made by the woman at the beginning, indicated their importance. Furthermore, the facts regarding these real needs could have been easily learned, as later developments proved. Although we cannot say that fuller knowledge of facts would have made it possible to ward off all the later disasters, if these facts had been known, the agency would hardly have felt satisfied with the mere provision of relief. If a careful inquiry had been made at the outset, definite information could have been secured regarding health problems, the problem of the man as a wage-earner, the characteristics of the oldest boy which had a bearing upon his future occupation, and, above all, upon the stability and self-reliance of the man and woman. This last consideration is in this case of supreme importance. Continuous treatment of the most skilled and personal kind was needed to make long-continued relief safe in a family situation which contained the possibilities of demoralization to the extent of this

one. The right use of the sources of information which were mentioned earlier would have put this agency in a position where, if they could not have prevented the disorganization of the life of this family, they at least could have recognized the difficulties ahead and have acted intelligently, if not successfully. How and why such sources of information should be used will be discussed by later speakers; and I will not go into it further. The use of them for the purpose of gathering the facts necessary to intelligent action is the first essential of a community program with respect to family problems.

2. The treatment of disabilities which handicap families in the effort to support themselves is the second essential of such a community program. The poor law of New Jersey, like the poor laws of most of the American States, provides that public outdoor relief shall be temporary. The program of practically all private agencies which concern themselves with the care of destitute families looks forward to the self-maintenance of such families. When we study the poor and their needs we find various disabilities which handicap them to such an extent as to make self-maintenance difficult or impossible. Obviously relief cannot be temporary as long as these disabilities persist. In other words, when illness, unemployment, waywardness, extravagance, ignorance, desertion, drunkenness, or any other factor is in any way responsible for the destitution of the family, it must be treated with a view to its elimination, if possible, before even the simplest objective in this field can be reached. This means that agencies dealing with families, after ascertaining by inquiry what the problems in a given family situation are, must seek the help of court, medical agency, school, church, or any other organization whose particular form of skilled service is necessary for the removal of a particular disability.

This is an essential part of a program for dealing with families, not merely because efficient work is impossible on any other basis, but also because in no other way can we be sure that our charitable efforts are helpful rather than humiliating. We are not so bent upon efficiency that we can afford to ignore the human aspect of our responsibility; and efficiency comes at too high a cost when it crushes the sensibilities of those who need our help. When we extend our helpfulness, however, to include the whole range of need in such families, we are combining efficiency with

consideration to a degree which is beyond any less thorough-going program.

3. Consideration for the poor suggests at once a third element in a community program: the conservation or development of resourcefulness and the spirit of self-dependence through personal influence. Dependence is frequently a matter of the unwise use of resources. This may spring from ignorance, from a wrong set of values, from shiftlessness, or from a broken spirit. Whatever the explanation, successful treatment of such families must include the re-education of habit, that subtle process whose importance we have begun to apprehend while we are still seeking to find the key to it. Too often we assume that a family whose wage-earners are employed, whose ill health has had successful medical treatment, whose truant children through fear of the attendance officer are regular in school, whose babies under the watchful eye of the nurse at the milk station have for weeks been properly fed, whose deserting husband and father has been restored to them with a threat from the court which for the time being keeps him up to his responsibilities—is a family rehabilitated. But we must remember that this family had a life before ever they applied for our assistance; and that all of these problems which we have solved for them were too much for their own powers before they came to us. In so far as our treatment of these various disabilities has been directed towards these disabilities alone and not towards the family psychology behind them, we may have merely shifted from the family responsibility for their own welfare, instead of developing or conserving their own disposition and ability to shoulder it.

This is a problem in personal relationships, for which there is no formula. The re-education of habit is accomplished through the influence of one personality upon another. In making it a part of his program with families, the worker in this field is reaching the very heart of the problem of family rehabilitation, for he is influencing those qualities of character upon which, after all, the future welfare of his clients depends. Incidentally, it is of no small significance to those who are sensitive to the criticism that workers in charity tend to become mechanical, that in this important part of their work they are actually expressing the most delicate consideration for the traits and sensibilities of those whom they are trying to help. I should like to give more than passing

emphasis to the fact that many organizations have greatly expanded their resources for this phase of their program by the use of trained volunteers.

4. Thus far we have discussed many other phases of work with families as of greater importance than material relief. This does not mean that relief is to be denied a place in our community program. While we must give the first place to the fitting of families to provide for their own needs, we must recognize that this is sometimes a long process. While it is going on the physical needs of life must be provided for, and on a scale adequate to decent living. Without it the rest of our program is of no effect. What we need to recognize is that our newer conception of family treatment gives a quite different significance to relief. Formerly, whether relief was to be given or not, and how much, depended upon what we could find out about a family. Now, however, the giving of relief has very little to do with what we find out about a family, but depends entirely upon what else we are going to do for them. Unless we have a plan of treatment which covers the removal of handicaps and the developments of family responsibility in which relief is necessary, we are not justified in giving it, except, of course, to provide for the most temporary emergencies. In a community program with respect to family problems, this might well be considered the one fundamental principle of relief.

5. Team work on the part of those who are working simultaneously upon the same families is the final essential. It almost goes without saying that without such team work we lose much of the value of modern expert service and inflict needless humiliation upon our beneficiaries. Team work involves more than a disposition to pull together. It involves a clear perception of the relationship between different things. It is hindered by our entrenched ideas of the way things ought to be done, and a preference for our own ways of doing them. When two or more persons, however, each professing the same purpose to help a distressed family, fail to agree upon ways and means, something is wrong. Much of the difficulty in the way of effective team work would be dissolved if there were on the part of each person in the process a clear understanding of the essential things in any program for dealing with families.

Earlier in this paper I said that we had abandoned our old

reliance upon almsgiving as our method of dealing with the poor. That statement is too sweeping. There are still some places where this practice persists, and even where it is regarded as sound, where the more modern conception of the task and its implications is distrusted as mechanical, heartless and ineffective. Possibly we are too sweeping also in asserting that the school dunce has gone for good. There are no doubt communities where the stool, cap and rod are still regarded as the only sound methods of dealing with the child who cannot learn, and where the psychologist, nurse and social worker would be distrusted if proposed as substitutes. The great contribution of the latter, however, is beyond argument, and we do not expect to go back to the stool, cap and rod. In the care of families also the program of social treatment has demonstrated itself. Public relief departments and private charitable societies where it has been adopted have found it a revelation of new and fruitful opportunities for service.

Possibly, however, we have not yet applied anywhere the most searching test. If he could speak for himself, to which would the dunce pin his faith: the stool and cap or the special class for backward children? If we could read the minds of those disorganized families who ask help of their kind, which would they prefer: the alms of an older generation or the full measure of helpfulness which an enlightened program of family treatment makes possible? To a group representing the interests which we do, the answer is clear. Making the answer, however, is not the end of our responsibility but only the beginning. If we see the possibility of greater service to families in need, we must equip ourselves to render it. Service implies the equipment of sympathy, standards and skill, by which alone programs become achievement.

THE CHAIRMAN: We are going to discuss some of the "Why's" later on, but just now we want to know something about the "How's." You have all heard of Mr. Everitt Macy in Westchester. I have never had the pleasure of meeting him, but I understand one of his best points is that he picks the best people to carry out plans and then relies on them. One of his best men—a woman—is Miss Ruth Taylor, and she is working there in the office of the overseer of the poor and knows a great deal about all these "how's" and is going to tell us something about "how" in Westchester.

THE PROBLEMS OF WESTCHESTER COUNTY AND HOW A PUBLIC AGENCY IS MEETING THEM

- Miss Ruth Taylor, Director, Department of Child Welfare, in
the Office of the Superintendent of the Poor,
Westchester County, N. Y.

As I understand my function here this morning it is to give you briefly the adventures and experiences of a large County in New York State in developing a system of dealing with family problems through a public agency. I will try to give our experiences in such a way that you may see some of them in the light of your own conditions in the State of New Jersey.

The County that has made these experiments is Westchester, a territory of 484 square miles lying directly north of the City of New York, its boundaries running from the northern limits of that City up the Hudson River to a point north of Peekskill, across to the Connecticut State line, and down that line to Long Island Sound. This area has a population at the present time of over 320,000. It contains four cities, Yonkers with 90,000, Mt. Vernon with 37,000, New Rochelle with 32,000, and the new City of White Plains with 16,000. Its village and rural population units vary in size from villages the size of Peekskill and Ossining to isolated hamlets in the eastern and northern hill country, far from a railroad.

In that hill country we find many of the most acute of rural problems; in the southern part of the County and along the Sound we find many of the problems of New York City. In the hill country we have the problem of the old American family that has degenerated for years through the process of inter-marriage and inbreeding; in the southern districts we have the immigration problem in marked degree. With our nearness to New York we have the problem brought by the commuters, the great mass of intelligent people whose business and social interests center in the City and who use our County merely as a place in which to sleep and to play golf. We have the problem of the great landed estate and the millionaire class.

The New York State Poor Law handles its problems of public relief on the basis of Town and County charges. For the pur-

poses of Poor Law administration Cities and Towns correspond and City Commissioners of Charity are the same as Town Overseers of the Poor. Under the Poor Law the 22 political divisions of Westchester County, four cities and 18 towns, which comprise the entire area of the County, are 22 separate Poor Law districts. Each town and city has at least one local poor law official, called in the towns, Overseer of the Poor, and in the cities, Commissioner of Charities. Over these, with powers vaguely defined, is a county official, the county superintendent of the poor. According to law, he has "the general supervision and care" of all the public dependents in the County. On January 1st, 1914, a new Superintendent of the Poor took office in Westchester County. As it is in his administration and due almost entirely to his efforts that the County has forged ahead in the care of public dependents of all classes, I must necessarily speak of his work.

The County Superintendent of the Poor in New York State has, in general, the County Alms House to maintain, and various other special duties. I will mention his work only in its relation to child caring and family problems. These two I must consider together as with us the treatment of one has grown out of our treatment of the other.

In Westchester County in 1914 the situation that existed was not unlike that of many New York State Counties, although its size and importance made its problem somewhat more noticeable. The County Superintendent of the Poor and the 30 Town Overseers and City Commissioners of Charity, for some towns had two overseers, all had the right to commit children to institutions as public charges. The Superintendent of the Poor had the right to remove and dispose of any such child, whether committed by himself or by one of the local officials. The local officials had the right to discharge from public care one of their own commitments but not a commitment of the Superintendent's. It was, therefore, perfectly possible, in cases of disagreement between the County Superintendent and an Overseer of the Poor, for the Overseer to commit a child, the Superintendent to discharge him, the Overseer to commit again, and the Superintendent again to discharge. This process could be continued indefinitely, with limitless possibilities for discord.

The treatment of family problems was left to each poor law district to handle, as it chose, through the old method of out-door

relief granted by the town overseers from appropriations furnished by the town boards. The County Superintendent of the Poor had a fund for the granting of out-door relief to an occasional family that was a County charge. Although he could commit any number of children to institutions at public expense he had no funds whereby he could pay any kind of a bill for the care of children in families. All bills for the care of children in institutions, whether committed by local officials or by the County Superintendent, were paid through funds appropriated in the budget of the Superintendent of the Poor. Therefore, the following situation had been slowly brought about:

The method and extent of granting out-door relief in the 22 Poor Law districts of the County differed remarkably. In a few cases generous appropriations with virtually no restrictions upon them were placed in the hands of the Poor Law officials. In some the Poor Law officials presented each case separately before the town board and secured by vote on each case individual appropriations for them. As a general thing the Overseer of the Poor was allowed to give grocery orders to the extent of \$2.50 per week to a needy family without consulting the town board, and in many cases this \$2.50 per week limit was set as a maximum beyond which public relief did not go, regardless of the desperate needs of the family.

As the overseers were not supplied with any investigators, and were men of varying degrees of training, with various outside interests, the standards of relief differed in as many ways as there were officials.

Moreover, another difficulty was sometimes found. Families were often broken up and children committed to institutions at public expense because the appropriations of the Town Overseer of the Poor for out-door relief had given out. The Superintendent of the Poor was powerless to meet this situation. Also there was occasionally elected to office a man less interested in family welfare than in his own political career, who preferred to break up a needy family, send the children to institutions, and thereby have their cost transferred to the books of the Superintendent of the Poor, rather than to give them the necessary aid locally and thereby appear before his Town Board as incurring expense for the Town. The accounts of the local Town officials were ordinarily

carefully scrutinized by the local taxpayer, whereas few analyzed the County budget.

In the first year of his administration the new Superintendent of the Poor realized that the County of Westchester was supporting through his office over 700 children in institutions and that the public had provided no mechanism by which he could be sure that such children even existed. He also realized that while he had power to commit an unlimited number of children to institutional care and could pay any rate whatever necessary to secure the proper care for them he could not pay ten cents a week to keep a needy mother with little children in her own home.

As a first step in meeting these problems Mr. Macy increased the staff of children's workers in the County, of whom there were only two so-called "Placing Out Agents," to five. As this could not be done quickly enough by public funds he secured private funds to make it possible. He set these five agents to work finding out who the dependent children of the County were, and how much their support was costing. By November of his first year, when it became his duty to present his first annual budget to the County Board of Supervisors, he was ready to urge that Board to include in their appropriations for his work an experimental sum with which he could care for children in family homes. The Board passed a general and somewhat vague resolution appropriating to the County Superintendent of the Poor a fund of \$6,000 for the board of children in private families, limiting the amount of board to be paid at a maximum of \$2.50 per week.

On March 1st, 1915, this fund became available and on that same date Mr. Macy organized a Department of Child Welfare for the County, with a Director at its head, as a part of the work of his office. Here again, since the need for Child Welfare work had not yet been sufficiently demonstrated, he called private funds to his aid in the project. The \$6,000 fund was turned over to the new Department to administer. Two needs for the fund, both falling within the scope of the resolution, were immediately determined upon. It was decided to illustrate the value of boarding home care, instead of institutional, for a few of the County's dependent children and to demonstrate the keeping of families together and the raising of family standards by the granting of adequate relief to mothers with young children, who were deprived of the aid of the bread-winners of the family.

During the first year in which the so-called "pension work" was possible in Westchester County, the office of the Superintendent of the Poor granted regular monthly relief to fourteen mothers, having a total of 58 children under the age of 16 living at home. Eight of these mothers were widows. Of the remaining six families, in three the father had deserted, his whereabouts had been entirely unknown for some time and a warrant was out for his arrest. Two were the families of men in prison and one that of a man permanently disabled. In each case there were families where the local Overseer of the Poor could not grant adequate relief to the family by the means at his disposal. In each case the relation of the local Overseer of the Poor to the individual family was carefully considered.

In the summer of 1915 New York State passed its so-called "Widows' Pension Bill." This bill made mandatory the appointing by the County Judge of each County of a County Board of Child Welfare but left entirely to the County Board of Supervisors the question as to whether or not such a Board should be granted an appropriation with which to work. Under the conditions of the New York State law, pension relief could be granted only to widows having children under the age of 16, who had lived in the district from which they applied continuously for the two years previous to their date of application, and whose husbands were citizens of the United States and residents of the State of New York at the time of their death. The terms of the bill in no way agreed with the State Poor Law. It was distinctly possible for a woman and her children to be proper Poor Law charges upon a County and yet not be eligible for pension relief under the law. When the Westchester County Board of Child Welfare went before the Board of Supervisors in the fall of 1915 to ask for an appropriation for the purpose of the Widows' Pension Act the Board of Supervisors decided not to appropriate funds under that act but instead to increase the appropriation in the budget of the Superintendent of the Poor on the ground that the Widows' Pension Law would reach only a part of the needy mothers with young children and that the Superintendent of the Poor had already organized to cover the larger field of family relief. To appropriate funds to the Board of Child Welfare would have meant the creation of a new relief agency with a new machinery for investigation, this to care for only one part of family relief

work. Pensions have, therefore, never been granted in Westchester County under the so-called "Widows' Pension Act."

Following the decision of this question the Board of Supervisors increased the appropriation of the Superintendent of the Poor for the year 1916 from \$6,000 to \$16,000, but still left the appropriation to cover both boarding home and family work. Just this last month, in the passage of the budget for the year 1917, have we secured a complete revision of our budget to meet these new needs. We now have a fund of \$30,000 for the year set aside entirely for the granting of a kind of relief officially termed "Mothers' Allowances."

This sketch will serve to show you by what steps the County of Westchester has begun its family relief work. I will now sketch briefly the situation at the present time.

A special bill for Westchester County, which became law January 1st, has created for the County of Westchester the office of Commissioner of Charities and Corrections in place of the old Superintendent of the Poor. Under this Commissioner the Department of Child Welfare is recognized as a Department of County administration. Under this law the Commissioner of Charities and Corrections is given the sole power of commitment of children under the Poor Law for the County and is given the right to make whatever provision for the care of children and of needy families the Board of Supervisors may authorize. The question that has been somewhat in doubt since Westchester County started its scheme as to whether or not we had the legal right to grant relief to families through a centralized department is, therefore, settled for good.

The Department of Child Welfare is in reality more nearly a general social service department than one of child care alone, as it combines for the County child caring and family work, and also such occasional problems of families or individuals in which there are no children at all as fall within the scope of work of no other organization. The Department now has a staff of 18 in its social service division alone; its clinical division has four more workers. Our present method of handling family problems is virtually that of any well organized private society. We have divided the County into seven districts, in each of which we maintain a district office. We have placed from one to three field workers in each district. They live there and confine their work

to their districts under the supervision of our central office in the Court House at White Plains. We have established a registry for all families in the County known to any one of our branch offices. In about nine months we have registered over 3,500 families. Wherever local social service exchanges exist in cities of the County our local cases are registered with them. Applications for regular monthly relief are registered either by our central office or by our local agents. Application blanks very similar to those in use by the private societies doing careful pension work, such as the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, are used by us. Our visitors make thorough investigations and submit complete and detailed written reports to the central office with recommendations. There the reports are carefully studied by the Director and Assistant Director of the Department, conference with the field worker is held, and the application approved or disapproved. If approved the family budget is carefully worked out according to the best methods we have been able to learn of to date. Our field workers study the family's resources with relation to mother's and children's earnings, help from relatives, church, private societies, or private individuals. We consider whether or not the family maintains its own garden and keeps chickens, what the health of each member of the family is, whether the father's death was due to tuberculosis or some other disease that may have imperilled the family's health. We estimate what, in our opinion, the family actually needs per month to meet its expenses of rent, food, fuel, light, clothing, carfare, insurance, and incidentals. In estimating food costs we consider the age and sex of each member of the family and give a higher allowance to families in which there has been or is a case of tuberculosis. Twice during the past few months we have increased our schedule in an effort to keep up with mounting prices; our schedule is still in my opinion too low, and we must soon raise it again.

Our methods of raising the family's standards are those of any good private relief agency. If the family is living in unsanitary conditions we help them to move, if necessary paying increased rent. We attempt to secure needed medical attention for them, we hunt employment, we supervise school records, we secure extra nourishment for delicate mothers or children, we send mothers to hospitals or away for vacations and provide for

their children while they are away. What of their needs we cannot supply from public funds, because of the necessary limitations of the use of appropriations, we raise from private.

The status of this branch of our work at the present time is briefly this: We are granting regular monthly allowances to eighty-five families; sixty-one of these the families of widows who would fall under the technical provisions of our widows' pension act if we were working under it; twenty-four who would not be so included. These mothers have a total of 317 children under the age of sixteen, living at home.

The actual amount of relief from public funds given through our office in the month of March was \$2,313.80, or an average of \$1.83 per child, per week. During the month of April we have taken on enough additional families to bring our monthly budget up to \$2,500, this being the maximum amount of relief we can give monthly this year under our new budget of \$30,000, which became available April 1st, if we are not to exhaust our funds and leave our families stranded before the year is out.

We have at the present time one hundred uninvestigated applications on our hands. These women must necessarily be cared for during the coming year by the local overseers of the poor or by private charities as has always been done in the past. Personally, I am not at all sorry that we have not an unlimited appropriation at our disposal. To increase from \$5,000 spent for mothers' allowances the first year, to \$8,000 the second, to \$30,000 the third, is as rapid an increase as I believe we can make without lowering our standards. Being able to relieve only between 90 and 100 families this year will give us an opportunity to develop our system and raise our standards of care. Our work has grown so rapidly that we have not been able to do as well as we know, and there are many weak spots in our record system and follow up work that need attention.

Although we are new at this work, we have made a few observations on the kind of families we have dealt with thus far:

A study we made in January of the first 83 families that we gave regular monthly relief to has demonstrated beyond doubt the economic advantage to the public of this method of child care. Leaving the humanitarian side entirely out of the question, we have proved that it is cheaper to care for children with their own mothers than anywhere else. During the last year, in which the

cost of living has steadily increased in our county, the per capita cost per week to the taxpayer of the maintenance of children with their own mothers did not exceed \$1.67 per week. The added supplementary private relief that we received for some of these children did not bring the total up to \$2. During this same period institution care for our children averaged over \$3 per week.

Due to the agitation throughout the state in behalf of Widows' Pensions we have had a great many more widows apply for relief than other women in need for other reasons than widowhood. In 74 out of our first 83 families, the father of the family had died and we have learned from a study of these cases that 27 out of these 74 men died of pulmonary tuberculosis. Thus we see with painful clearness the part tuberculosis has played in causing public dependency in this one little group. Unfortunately, our acquaintance with the families has taught us that the death of the father from this disease does not end the evil results to the family.

Almost exactly fifty per cent. of the parents of our allowance families were born in the United States. In fifteen families, the parents were born in Ireland; and in twelve, in Italy. The remaining group were scattered among eight European countries, Austria-Hungary leading, with eight fathers and seven mothers claiming it as their birthplace.

To our surprise we have found that our mothers are not as young women as we thought they would be. Only six of the first 83 mothers pensioned were under thirty years of age; nineteen being from thirty to thirty-four; twenty-seven from thirty-five to thirty-nine; twenty-three from forty to forty-four years. Correspondingly we have found that the largest number of children in these families are from six to twelve years of age. That the families we are caring for are on the whole a very promising sort is shown by the fact that seventy-seven per cent. of them were self-supporting before the death or disability of the man. A study of the occupations of the men has thus far shown very little, although we notice that unskilled day labor and factory employment have thus far been the commonest means of earning a livelihood.

The average weekly earnings of the men, however, tell the following story: They range from \$5 to \$40 a week, but fall in the following wage groups: two men of our first 83 earned less than \$10 per week; forty earned between \$10 and \$15; 22 earned between \$16 and \$20, while only twelve earned over \$21.

It is, therefore, evident why families averaging four children per family were unable to lay away enough money to care for the wife and children for any length of time after the income stopped.

That the mothers made every effort to care for themselves, we have proved by the fact that seventy of the first 83 were actually bringing in money for the support of their children at the time we granted them allowances. Forty of these did laundry or housework outside of their own homes, thereby leaving their children for at least a part of the week entirely uncared for, during the day. Of the thirteen women who were not bringing in money to their families, three were pregnant, one had a husband ill at home who demanded her care, one was crippled with rheumatism, and the remaining eight either had nursing babies or were physically too ill to work. This is a startling indication of the amount of effort these mothers were making to maintain their own homes.

But that they were pathetically unequal to the task is also evident, for of these 83 families, only thirteen were entirely self-supporting at the time the allowances were granted. Of the remaining seventy, sixteen were being helped entirely through public relief, eleven were receiving aid from private charities and forty-three were being helped both by public and private sources. By relieving both the local town overseer and the private charitable organization or individual of the burden of these long-time relief cases, the Department of Child Welfare believes that it is making it possible for each to do its remaining work much more efficiently and adequately.

I must emphasize for one moment our conscious aim: it is educational—to do our work in handling Westchester County's family problems so well that we may permanently raise its standards of relief work. A County organization has a great advantage here. We stand for adequate and constructive relief. The Board of Supervisors has fixed the limit of allowance that we may give a family this year at \$3.00 per week per child; where that is not enough, we consider ourselves responsible for organizing sufficient private aid to complete the budget. We aim to see our families the whole way through. We are giving two mothers \$55.00 per month each at present from public funds, and when they happen to need, from time to time, such additional equipment as a mattress, a bed, or a new stove, we consider it our business to provide

them means of obtaining it without going hungry for a week or two.

But in return, we demand purpose and plan. We tell our taxpayers that just as when they pay taxes for roads they expect good roads and notice whether they get them, so when they pay taxes for child care and family welfare work, they should expect better children and better families and notice whether they get them. Good roads cannot be built by haphazardly dumping stone and sand on them; neither, we say to the taxpayer, can good children and good homes be made merely by dumping coal, food and clothes upon them. Therefore, we plan, and work with a purpose.

And here let me say that the public has been extremely generous in accepting our plans, studying them and understanding them. Some of our general rules have been rather new in public relief work in our district, among them our insistence on giving no relief to families having an active case of tuberculosis living at home, or to families in which there are feeble-minded needing institutional care, but by making a point of carefully and painstakingly explaining, our new methods have been almost invariably accepted. We are not being subjected to any public pressure to lower our standards.

Another expected difficulty that we have not met is that of having needy people of the best sort shun us because we are a public agency. This simply hasn't happened. This I lay chiefly to the type of women we are using as our field workers; they are exactly the sort you meet in private charitable work. Of our present staff of thirteen persons doing case work, seven are college graduates, and four others came to us from charity organization societies or other reliable private organizations.

The greatest difficulty we have met through being a public agency is in getting relatives of needy families to aid them; the belief that we have unlimited funds works harm there.

During the past year our greatest need has been for better physical and mental care for our wards; our county's equipment in this respect has not been adequate to our needs. Within the last two months private funds have furnished a clinic division to the department for the physical, psychological, psychiatric and neurological examination of our wards, with a physician at its head; this will serve both our dependent children and families.

Before fall we must perfect a system of school reports from teachers for our children with their own mothers. We also have need for budget and account books for our most intelligent families, and we must find methods of training in homekeeping and child care our mothers who have grown up as mill workers in Yonkers. We have much work ahead of us.

In closing, I wish especially to emphasize to you the importance in our work of private co-operation and aid. I know of few instances where a public department has received the cordial private support that we have, and I believe that much of the progress we have made in two years is due to that support. Private funds pay the salaries and expenses of our clinic workers and seven of our social service staff. They furnish us extra relief, clothing, medical care, four Ford cars for our agents' use, numberless aids to our families' comfort and our own efficiency. And this is because we are making the people of Westchester County realize that this is their job—the eleven hundred children under our care are their wards, to make as they choose—we are merely their hired servants. They meet with us and advise us, and we tell them of our difficulties, our successes, our problems, our aims. An auxiliary group of 300 citizens has organized to help us—in the last few months a movement has started to give our local agents case committees in each district to help with local problems. Seven such committees are already meeting regularly.

And is this not right? Why should the private organization be any more the business of the general public than a public agency, carried on by their own order, supported by their own money, and conducted by the person they themselves elect to do the work? If in the next three years we can make the people of Westchester County know the problems of their dependent classes, understand their importance, and set high standards for dealing with them in all time to come, we shall have accomplished our purpose.

In Working Out New Jersey's Problems Through Private Agencies

WHY WE CONFER WITH RELATIVES

**Miss Harriet Townsend, Formerly Secretary of the Charity
Organization Society of Elizabeth**

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Conference: "I did not know charity meant taking such a lot of trouble," said a relative who came into my office in response to a letter to confer with us; "I thought charity meant giving ten cents to a poor man in the street, or going into a home with a basket."

We want to be very definite as to purpose before we confer with relatives. Is our purpose to obtain relief from those we think ought to be most interested in the family in distress? In some instances, yes; and in all instances where it develops a sense of responsibility, a dependence and interdependence of the weak on the strong, and obligation of the strong for the weak. And inasmuch as the strong son helps the feeble parent, the strong brother the weaker sister, in all these instances where the family tie is bound more strongly, it is a distinct contribution to the social fabric.

But our adventure is more than this. Our quest is to develop capacity out of incapacity, to make the impotent self-reliant, to make the weak strong, and to develop richness of life from poverty of life.

The factors of development we know are heredity and environment and the reaction of the individual to those conditions. Hence we must know how he is born, where he is born, of whom he is born, what has been the nurture or the lack of nurture, what has been the reaction of the individual to these conditions of heredity and environment. We must learn, we must go far back, we must get the setting if we are to dare to lay a hand upon the plan of that life; it is impertinent of us to impose our plan without this complete setting, without the full history of heredity, environment and reaction.

Perhaps I can illustrate. We heard a short time ago of a missionary who earned the scorn of natives by digging for water in time of drought instead of importuning the heavens. In the

same way we are not understood when we mine among relatives to help him who is borne down by handicaps, to try and fit him for useful life in the community so that he may come into his own. In 1914, in that dreadful period of unemployment, in the first few months, there was a family about to be set out on the street; the man had been laid off among the first because he was elderly and clumsy, wretched housing conditions existed, an ill mother, small children working in the mill instead of going to school. It was hard to get them to tell anything about themselves; while we were relieving the immediate distress, a cousin who was visited revealed something: "Yes, he was a tailor in the old country." So there was a chance. A place was found for him as a tailor, he supported his family that winter and is still doing it because his economic capacity was found for him and he was given his opportunity.

One time we were called on the telephone by a representative of a newly organized private society: "We want to let you know we have found the most deserving little woman. She came to our door selling aprons and iron holders; she is really entirely too good for the charity organization; she is a lady, so refined and gentle. Her husband deserted her four months ago; she has a boy of fourteen; she is so grateful; we are going to do everything for her." Three months ago we were again called up on the telephone and now we heard a very different story—the most obstinate and ungrateful person she was now—"Just got a letter from her saying she is an expectant mother; the boy is a loafer, that she has no fire or food; told her she must go into a hospital," etc., etc. We went to see her, found her before a hot fire, and after a confidential talk got the information that she had a sister and sisters, but she did not want them to know anything about her, said she had always been able to get along for herself. We found the sister, a splendid, kindly woman, living in a comfortable home, and she said, "Has Lola come to this?" Then she told us all about it. "Lola was born," she said, "just after our mother went insane; she was insane twenty years before she died. We always looked on Lola as a little orphan and never made her do anything. She was a pretty, sweet little child. After a while she took it into her head she wanted to be a lady's maid. She had queer kind of spells. Well, she went off, and by and by came home with a little baby in her arms. We took her in because

we loved her and we did everything for her and wanted her to stay. But no, she married. He was a good man, a rough man, but a good man; he took the little boy to his heart and was good to him. Then as the boy grew up there were difficulties and he left her four times. I don't blame him. My sister Frances works in good houses, in good families, and wanted Lola to come and live with us and we would take care of the boy. But she would not. And now this is the second time we have heard this, that she is a beggar." I can't go on with all that happened after this, but we now had an understanding of the best plan for her and the boy. The boy has had his physical handicap removed, and has been released from his slovenly and shiftless habits, and both are living under the protection of the relatives.

There is another instance that came to our experience of the spiritual and moral help in consulting relatives. We were besought to go to a home and take all the children away. The mother, we were told, was cruel, almost killed the children, all the doors and windows open, she herself hardly ever home, not a stick of furniture in the house. We went. We saw the mother. "Of course I am out every day," she said; "ain't I doing all I can? He works, but he don't bring home no wages." "No, the boy doesn't go to school; he won't go to school." The baby was ill, and shortly died of spinal meningitis. We asked about relatives. "The family wouldn't wipe their feet on me," she declared. But we found the relatives, self-respecting, comfortable, kindly people of moral sense and a sense of order, of fitness and feeling. Here was their tale: "After Elizabeth was born my mother died and we were put out. My father put Elizabeth with a careless woman, and we were ashamed of her; we knew she was growing up all wrong. We heard she married a man who took to drinking. We have a brother, who might help; he is sending his boys to college; he might be interested in her boy and might get him to go to school." A very carefully worded letter was written to the prosperous brother in the great city. We got a wonderful letter from him. "I will go out and see my sister," he said, "and do all I can. It is to my shame that I have neglected her all this time." A marvelous transformation came over that family; it is a home now with order and comfort, and really beauty in it, to-day. The boy is going to school and is no longer a loafer. Something has

been aroused in them. The mother feels she is a member of a respectable family.

I wish there were time to tell you of numbers of children we have taken out of institutions where they have been immured and placed them in the family circle of relatives, and all the splendid ties that are knit up so often by conference with relatives. I think we would do well to remember that the root of the word kindred and the word kind are one.

WHY WE CONFER WITH EMPLOYERS

Miss Helen B. Pendleton, Supervisor of Case Work, Bureau of Associated Charities, Newark

In my great aunt's home there was a picture such as Mr. Lee describes, but in the picture an old lady held the rod. In that period—the dame school period—the charity worker saw the employer to find out whether the man drank or whether the family was deserving, and whether relief should be given or not. But our point of view has changed a good deal since then.

The technique of what we call “case work” means that we must know something about the man of the family. We must find out if the employer knows him, if he is interested in him, and what he knows about the family. And it is very extraordinary sometimes what that little personal visit will discover. You write a letter and the reply will be about five or six lines probably, and will say perhaps that the man has done his work pretty well, and that is all. But if you can see the employer, if you talk with him in a direct businesslike manner, and not wander all around the earth before you come to the point, you may find that the employer knows a great deal about the man that will be very helpful in the treatment of the family.

We see employers, then, to find out what to do. We no longer, I hope, write to the employer. Employers are very hard to reach, and especially perhaps in Newark, where there are 1,800 factories, but we have discovered that when we see them, and when we do get them interested, the team work that Mr. Lee spoke of can begin. I am a little bit disturbed now about what is going to happen in the next six months or year—I hope it will be no longer than that—because what we call civilian relief

is going to be started, and I very much fear there will be form letters with printing on them sent out, with questions like "What do you know of so and so?" and that we are going to slip back a bit to the dame school period ways. I read thousands of such letters in San Francisco after the fearful earthquake and fire, and I hope that the people who are going to take up the study of how to relieve the soldiers' and sailors' families will keep away as far as possible from the form letter to employers.

I want to give you some few instances to show how the modern social worker of the type that the lady from Westchester describes can really win the employer over and make him a true social worker. Let us begin with the relief problem. Mr. Lee put it forth, but sometimes we have to begin with it. A young Italian some two or three years ago got into a row with one of his compatriots, stabbed him and fled. The man died, and the murderer has never been found. Who would have thought of bothering with the employer in the dame school period in a case like that? It was a murder. The man was dead. The murderer had fled and the police could not find him. The social worker called on the employer and found he was deeply interested in the young man, knew of the difficulties he had with the man he had murdered, and was prepared to defend him if he could be found. He knew that the young man had an excellent education, which he had got partly in America at night school, had many fine traits, had learned to play the guitar and the violin, and he (the employer) was much interested in the man's children. He offered to give five dollars a week to help the family. (We call him a B. I.—which is the Bostonese for "Benevolent Individual.") Now, to win an employer over to give material relief is a good thing. But the material relief in this case was only a small part. The young murderer has never been found. (The wife says, "Oh, if only I had him in the penitentiary where I could go to see him!") But the family is cared for; the mother has a regular allowance through the Associated Charities; she goes out to work a little, but not so much as to have to neglect her children; the eldest child, who has extraordinary musical ability, is learning the violin, because the social worker, as a result of the information given by the employer about the father, discovered that the child inherited the father's musical talent.

We find the employer can also be made a sort of board of

arbitration. That is very necessary in the team work of which Mr. Lee spoke. Some three weeks ago one of our district secretaries was asked to look into the troubles of a particular group. A grandmother in Providence, R. I., was complaining very bitterly that her son-in-law's motherless children, who had been placed with her, were not being paid for by him. She wanted us to go and see what the trouble was, she felt he was making good wages and that he should be helping to support the two children. His first wife, the children's mother, had died, and the second wife, who had married him in haste, had left him and was repenting at leisure. She was a canny person and had gone to a lawyer and had succeeded in making the man pay her seven dollars a week; she had no children by him and was perfectly capable of working. He was not paying anything for his children, therefore, but was paying seven dollars a week to the wife with whom he did not get along. Did we write to the employer? No, we had a conference with him. As soon as he understood the situation he said, "Let us get the people together." So the employer, the district secretary, the second wife, and the man himself had a conference, and the employer was the chairman of this board of arbitration. Through the employer's influence the second wife, who was repenting to the tune of seven dollars a week, was persuaded that some of that money ought to go to the children in Providence, and as the grandmother only insisted upon three dollars a week, it was settled, and she is now getting part of the man's wages for the care of his children.

Then the employer can also be—well, I don't quite know what to call it, but here is an illustration. We are interested in a Hungarian family. The father is insane and at Overbrook; the woman is one of the most wonderful spirits we have ever known. She insists on doing things—working far beyond her strength at times. She has four charming children, and takes in washing to help support them. I have a picture of those children sitting around the table in the neat little home at night studying their lessons, and it is a very beautiful picture. One of the people for whom the mother works has become so interested in her that she has insisted upon her having a month's holiday, and that she should pay her wages for that time. Who ever heard of a washerwoman having a month's holiday? Do you not think that

employer is a B. I. and a social worker and a wonderful human being all rolled into one?

These are just a few instances to show why we see employers. We have to find out the right thing to do; we want to interest the employer in the family to get relief; but, after all, the big thing, the chief thing, is to make it possible for the employer, who after all represents the great business world, and who cannot do the social service work himself, to take some share, some real part in that work. If you write him perfunctory letters you must expect to get the same kind in return. He will then look upon the Associated Charities as merely an institution to divide the sheep from the goats, and will be contented with the vague general impression that the Associated Charities exists to protect the public and act as a clearing house (that idea of the clearing house is firmly fixed in the business mind) in all these problems. But that is not the sort of result we want, and the reason for seeing the employer is that he, too, may take his part in social service, and I tell you, ladies and gentlemen, that when he does understand that, your societies will never go begging for money for salaries.

WHY WE CONFER WITH CHURCHES AND SCHOOLS

Miss Katherine Gardner, Director, Civic Association, Englewood

A great responsibility rests on those of us who are endeavoring to solve the problems of families or individuals who need charitable assistance. The people who come to us for aid are not essentially different from their neighbors, except for some thing or things which have caused them to fall below the level of self-support. It is the task of us social workers to search out the reasons for their dependency and to make a plan which shall bring them to the point of self-dependence.

Theoretically, this may sound quite simple, but in reality it is a very complex task and often requires years of patient persistent endeavor to accomplish the result for which we are working. There are so many things that enter into the problem of dependency; a person may come to us with a request for something that seems to him to represent his greatest need, whereas it is very possibly only the indication of something much more radical that needs care.

As a case in point I want to tell of a man who come to our office with a slip from a physician asking us to provide electrical treatment for his rheumatism. The man was scarcely able to walk and it was quite obvious that he needed treatment; what also became obvious, when we learned the real situation, was that the man, who had recently come from the South, could not stand the Northern climate and would undoubtedly become a chronic invalid if he stayed here. The immediate needs of the family must of course be relieved, but by far the most essential thing was to send that man and his children back to their home in the South, where he could hope to be well and self-supporting.

It was an easy task to diagnose the trouble with the family of which I have just spoken, but there are times when the real difficulty is not so evident and it is then that we must learn to make use of the many sources of information that are at our disposal. We have been hearing of the help which may be secured from relatives and employers in making an intelligent plan for the people whose social disabilities we are trying to cure; let us consider now the value of conference with churches and schools.

In any dealings with our fellow beings we know the importance of the personal element; the strength or weakness of a man's moral character, his degree of intelligence and reliability are things which we must know if we are going to be of help in developing his power of self-maintenance. These factors are hard to estimate in a few visits, and it is in securing this knowledge that we find the church and school to be of great help, for their judgment is not biased by the personal considerations that sometimes influence other sources of information. I remember one family where the man came to us with a request for a loan to tide him over a temporary difficulty. He was well dressed and made a good impression, and his story of loss of work through no apparent fault of his own was substantiated by his employers and his relatives, who gave him high praise on all points. The home was above the average in neatness and comfort. It was from his minister that we learned that he had no moral backbone, and that he never stuck to any job, but depended on the earnings of his wife and boys, who worked out of school hours. The boys' school teachers were then consulted and from them we learned that the father's characteristics were appearing in the sons, who played truant and belonged to a gang which was in frequent

trouble with the authorities. The man's application to us gave an opportunity to go to the real root of the whole family problem and the information received from the church and school led to a plan which included taking one boy away from the demoralizing home influences, securing the interest of a Big Brother for the other, and a continued watch over the man, which has resulted in keeping him at work most of the time.

In other cases these same agencies have given invaluable information about children in the families under our care. A few years ago we became interested in a family that for a long time had been perilously near the line of dependency. There was a huge number of children and the father, who drank a little most of the time, never had steady work. Finally he had an accident which partially crippled him and made it necessary for the family to be cared for for a time. The oldest child's fourteenth birthday was just a few months off and the parents were waiting anxiously for this important event to take place so that he could become a financial asset to the family. We went to the lad's teacher to see about his school standing and whether or not he would be likely to be given working papers. From her we learned of the boy's unusual mental ability and of his great desire to take the commercial course in the high school—a dream for which, as the oldest of eight children and his mother's main reliance, he knew there was small chance of realization. This information from the school influenced our plan, and instead of helping the boy to find a job—probably poorly paid and with little future—we raised money for a scholarship, paid weekly, during the school term, which has enabled him to feel that he is helping support the family, while he is working to attain his ambition of being a real business man.

Another time when we had a puzzling case of a girl who was proving a moral menace to the community it was the information secured from the principal and teacher that helped us in choosing the proper institution to which to send her.

These are instances of the value of the church and school as sources of information in definite cases, and they are typical of what we may expect from them as a usual thing if we form the habit of consulting them. The relations of pastor and teacher are different from those of other people and their insight into the family problem is of great value. When we learn that a family

is not living up to its church obligations, or that the children are truants or falling behind in their lessons, we know that these things must be taken into consideration in forming a plan to rehabilitate the family.

Besides giving information that is essential in the formation of a plan of treatment, the co-operation of the church and school is invaluable in carrying it through. Moral weaknesses underlie much of dependency, and religious influence is of greatest help in overcoming these. Those of us who heard the speakers yesterday morning know how essential is the help of priest or pastor in any form of family work. This is especially true in cases where a man or woman needs to be helped in overcoming habits of intemperance, or in cases of family trouble or of desertion where the man has returned and we are trying to strengthen the family life and prevent a future catastrophe of this kind. This personal influence is also of great value in other ways. We knew a family where the man had worked for years for a New York firm. He had had a good salary, but had become quite deaf, and in a readjustment of business he had been given an inferior position. This demotion had depressed him terribly and he finally gave up his job and decided to become a huckster. He put all the money he could scrape together into this business and had just started when he fell on the ice and was laid up for a while. It was at this time that the family was referred to our society for help. When the man was well enough to work again we tried to persuade him to return to his old position, for he didn't seem cut out for a successful huckster. His clergyman also used his influence, but the man was too proud to think of going back, and he finally borrowed enough money to start in peddling again. We kept in close touch with the family and soon discovered that he was running behind, and was feeding the family on his stock and having a constantly decreasing amount of capital with which to purchase new supplies. While we were sure that the only work for which he was fitted was that to which he had been accustomed all his life, the man's mental make-up was such that he simply couldn't *humiliate* himself (as he termed it) to the point of applying for his old job. We thought that he might feel differently if the request could come from the other end; fortunately the minister knew his former employer and when we made the suggestion he was glad to go to him and ask him to

follow it out. At the same time he went to the man, and the combination of the tactful letter from the employer and the clergyman's advice had the desired result. The man is back at his old work, is making enough to support his family and is even paying back his loan.

While I have emphasized the value of the information and personal service rendered by the church and school, we must not overlook the fact that they also often reveal sources from which financial help may be secured. Most churches have funds with which to help the needy of the parish and we almost invariably find them glad to co-operate in any plan which involves financial assistance. Another advantage of using these agencies is that when they learn what we are trying to do they quickly acquire the habit of using us, too, and in that way we frequently have a chance to be of help to families before they reach the desperate point where they have to seek charity.

These are a few of the reasons why we have found it necessary to confer with the church and school in our attempt to do our bit toward the solution of New Jersey's problems. It is only by securing a basis of knowledge and through the co-operation of these and other agencies that we can do efficient work and be of real help to the people who need us and to the community that makes our work possible.

WHY WE CONSULT WITH MEDICAL AGENCIES AND MAKE USE OF PUBLIC RECORDS

**Miss Mabelle C. Phillips, Secretary, Charity Organization
Society, Plainfield**

When we think well of ourselves, we Social Workers, we call ourselves Social Physicians. So close is the analogy between our work and that of the doctor that we even dare also to speak of the "diagnosis," "prognosis" and "treatment" of our cases.

What else is at the back of all this than a very close relation between the doctor and social worker? Is not our work in fact complementary to his and his to ours? There is certainly not one more indispensable source of information and inspiration than the doctor. In the study of 2,600 case records summarized

by the Russell Sage Foundation there were 800 consultations with physicians, more than with any other single source, saving relatives. If all the social agencies whose records were studied had been on their jobs, I do not see why the number of consultations should not have equalled the number of records, or nearly.

Personally, I can scarcely recall a well-studied family in need, some one or more of whose members have not been in need of a physician. Certainly one should not like to take the reverse for granted except upon the authority of a physician.

I do not wish to appear too laudatory of a profession with which we all at times disagree. There are doctors without the "social mind," the proverbial disagreement among doctors is not yet obsolete. Oftentimes they give us a diagnosis of tuberculosis, for instance, too late to be of use. But speaking on the whole and in the large, the doctor is the social worker's greatest ally and firmest friend. Without him we cannot make our diagnosis or plan our treatment. I recall a recent instance of a woman with many children sadly neglected who was regarded by her friends and employer simply as a tired mother in need of a rest. When we obtained the carefully studied medical diagnosis it was "tumor of the brain," more than enough, certainly, to account for children and home neglected.

Hospital and dispensary are really the doctor magnified. As agencies a little less accessible for inquiry, however, they merit a moment's further notice. A physician on one's Case Committee may be the key to unlock these sources of information when a bit too zealously guarded. Doctor to doctor will unfold secrets which might be withheld from a layman whose discretion was not known to the physician.

The dentist is not only a mouth doctor, as we too long thought, but in his knowledge may we find the solution of problems formerly baffling. A chronic rheumatic we have long known has never been helped by a number of physicians. This winter, while undergoing treatment in the hospital, this patient had the services of a dentist who extracted many useless teeth. The hidden poison thereby dislodged may be, we hope, the cause of the past trouble, and so a real cure may be effected.

In Plainfield the Visiting Nurse Association and the C. O. S. have not only an interlocking directorate, but an interlocking staff, my assistant being the director of the nurses. This close

co-operation accounts for the fact that the percentage of families in which our C. O. S. procured medical or nursing care in the homes was last year 38 per cent. This was the highest percentage recorded by any society, only a minority reporting above 10 per cent.

Although we have at our hospital no Social Service Department, cases leaving the ward are referred to the visiting nurses, who in turn refer those to us who are in need of material assistance. The nurses' cards being in our office, consultation is constant and constantly proving invaluable. Last week, for example, a bright and pretty young girl called for advice as to becoming a trained nurse. Her education being insufficient for this profession, it occurred to us that training as a babies' nurse would be more suitable. A visiting nurse's card, however, revealed the fact that this girl had been discharged from the ward last summer as a patient having suffered from a contagious disease. Consultation with the doctor assured us that her condition was safe at the present time, and she is now in training where her physical condition will be under supervision for two years, as it should be.

I wish that midwives kept records for our consultation either within or outside our office. We consult these women in every case possible, however, to ascertain whether proper precautions have been taken. In one case it was fortunate our nurse made inquiries, as she found that not only had nitrate of silver been used, but a bottle containing one ounce of this solution had been left with the parents to use externally or internally or in what quantities they saw fit.

Another reason why we consult midwives is to find whether the birth of the child has been recorded. Frequently it has not, and we see that the record goes on file—to the joy, probably, of some future social worker seeking a birth record for working papers or widow's pension. We have all, I think, learned to use public records more since the Act for Dependent Children was passed. Sometimes baptismal records will suffice for birth certificates, but deaths and marriages must be registered to allow our widows to secure their pensions. This rigidity will, I fancy, have a good effect in time, especially with the more ignorant women whose husbands they have termed "dead" after a brief absence or "divorced" by means of a postal card declaration. Our search for a marriage record several years ago led to the marriage

which at first we did not find recorded. There was a good reason for this, however, as the real husband of the woman in question was alive. We found him an utterly cruel and worthless fellow, whose one good point seemed to be that he was willing to divorce his wife. Sufficiently encouraged, he did this and our pair were really married, thereby not only bringing to an end a lawless relation, but also incidentally restoring a family to self-support. The man's self-respect apparently was reawakened and he must have become a better workman, too, for there are no more applications from the family.

There is another public record which we do not often have to consult, that is, the record of property owned by our clients. We generally find when we do inquire that it has a value of about \$1,000, is mortgaged for \$750, and cannot be sold until the youngest of eight children is twenty-one years old. That is the reason one of our widows cannot obtain her pension. I may say no light is shed sometimes by the consulting of a record. In this case we simply felt that the worst was known, and we proceeded to organize relatives, making appeals, and collect income and clothing.

Much more frequently, unfortunately, than property records are the court records we have to consult. Some of our friends thought us very suspicious of a nice looking young boy, the brother of a girl in whom we were interested, when we did not agree to the establishment of a household for just these two. But we had found from court records in another State that this boy had served in three penal institutions, and although we wished to give him his chance, we did not want to put his young sister in the same balance. Our fears were more than justified, as it turned out. The girl, being a dependent and feeble-minded, was returned to her legal settlement and institutional care.

Sometimes we are able through the aid of immigration records to do likewise with dependents from another country, when we find that they have been here less than three years. I recall one flagrant case of a peasant girl, feeble-minded and of the aggressive type, who came to this country to live with her sister, a tubercular girl who had married a tubercularly inclined man and had had a number of delicate children. We had, at enormous expense, restored this couple to health and re-established them in a home, when Sister Katie came. Imagine our relief when

we discovered her record and her date of admission to this country were such that she could be returned to her parents. She was. And by that deportation alone I felt that the keeping and consultation of records were ever after justified and *should* be made compulsory, under penalty of hard labor at statistical tables.

Tuesday Afternoon, May 1, 1917

PROBLEMS OF NEGRO MIGRATION NORTHWARD

Mrs. Charles W. Stockton, President, N. J. State Federation of
Women's Clubs, Ridgewood, Presiding

(Before the regular session proceeded a business session was held.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I had a preamble prepared which I assure you was very artistic and calculated to create the right atmosphere for my little ten minutes' talk. But why waste time creating atmosphere when we have such excellent atmosphere now, to stimulate interest?

In the first place, I think it is a bit of an awakening when you find your speaker is not going to talk about the subject that is announced as her topic.

I am here as State President of the New Jersey Clubs to give one or two ways in which the organization I represent can co-operate with and help your organization and others such as yours, for we are all working along the same lines.

And first, because some of you may not know much about clubs, I am going to say a word about what the Federated Clubs are.

Twenty-five years ago we were a joke. To-day we are a power. Few villages are there even that do not have some federated club. The organization runs through the village, the town, the county, the State, and the nation. Our national organization covers every State and Territory of this Union, until within less than one week, if it were necessary, our national president, who is president of our General Federation, could get a message to every county in this whole country. Do you realize that we are a power, then, and that we may be able to do things for you as well as for others?

Now, when people can do things it does not follow that they can do everything on every line of work. What we do must be in our own peculiar line. We cannot start businesses or institutions; we have no money. Our dues are small; we want every woman to be able to be a member. Let me say to the men, however, that most of the clubs are incorporated and can receive

gifts and make use of them in the work which our dues will not cover.

We cannot do those things, then, that require money, nor can we take time for research or for writing treatises, because most of our members are busy housewives and mothers. But the thing we can do is to be a live wire to send messages such as yours to every hamlet in this country and to create public opinion. You have heard the saying in your home, I am sure, that mother and the girls get what they want—and whether it is in home or town or country, when the women understand things and make up their minds what they want, they are pretty sure to get it.

The thing our world needs now more than anything else is knowledge of conditions, and the human heart and good will can be trusted to do the rest. You can make a law, but you can't enforce it without public opinion behind it. Now, when we have this access that I have described to the women of the country, let us take your message and co-operate with you wherever we can. That is one way we can help.

There is another way in which we can do your work and such work as yours. This work you are doing is more and more being recognized as—shall we say?—housekeeping work. It is housekeeping on a large scale. I notice that many of the members of this audience are women. May I appeal to you, and ask if you do not prefer to keep your house rather than have your husbands do it? When we get this larger housekeeping and perhaps show the same efficiency as we have shown in the smaller housekeeping may not some of the clubs be used to do it? If they call it social service or philanthropy, what does it matter? When people work together and accomplish things they come to understand each other. Let us understand, the women of the clubs, what you want them to do. You understand now, I hope, just what we can do. Do not come to us for money; we have not got any money. But come to us and say, "Will you carry this message of ours out through New Jersey?" And tell us what your message is, and why you want it to go out. We are educating ourselves, educating the women not to just do anything on request without knowing the reason for the request. If you will remember these things I will promise you that you will see conditions altered, and I think I may promise you even that you will see legislation

touched. In the name of the Women's Clubs of New Jersey, I offer you our co-operation.

This afternoon, the first address on our programme will be made by Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Director of the American Red Cross, Washington.

MR. ERNEST P. BICKNELL: I am told I have ten minutes to talk, and I will try not to be like the man who was told that, but went on and on talking till he had spoken twenty-five minutes, and as he was winding up he said in a peroration, "It is a great pleasure to me to see so many of my old friends before me, so many of whom I have not seen for many a long day," and somebody in the audience called out, "Name one!"

Now, about the Red Cross. This atmosphere which has been spoken of a moment ago, the cheerful aspect of it almost makes me hesitate to speak of the rather gloomy subject of war and of what the Red Cross may do and must do and is trying to do, and yet that is what I am to do.

About the United States going into the war I have this feeling. If we go into it, knowing what we are doing, with our heads high, and cheerful, well and good—splendid; if we go into it cheerfully because we do not know what we are doing, then we are going to have a dreadful awakening. I hope we are going in knowing that we are assuming a tremendous responsibility, that in setting out to fight for liberty, for right of conscience and right of self-government, and all these rights we value so highly, we appreciate that we are nevertheless taking on a responsibility which is going to mean a tremendous burden of expense—of expense in money, yes, but that is nothing compared to the expense in life and in health and in strength of our young men, nor does that money cost compare with the cost which war always brings on a nation in dislocating all normal life and the usual things of everyday life. The dislocation of normal life that has come upon Europe because of this great war during the last two and a half years is almost beyond comprehension, beyond understanding; it is an undreamed of thing. Now we do not know how far the United States is going to get into this maelstrom; we simply know that we are on the outer edge of a circling current which is drawing us toward the vortex; how far in we shall go we do not know yet. We have committed ourselves, however, feeling that we have exerted all the forbearance that we ought to exert

and that we are doing right in the step we as a nation have taken. And that is final. Now we are in for it. What can we do about it? A million, possibly two million, of our young men may go into the war. That will leave ninety million more who are not fighting, cannot fight, and will not be given the opportunity or duty of fighting in the trenches, or at the front.

Now, the Red Cross is the channel, the instrument, by which those people may do their part. That is rather a big contract, and I have stated it broadly, and roundly, and a bit strongly, perhaps, but that is, in fact, the purpose and intent of those who organized the Red Cross, and it is for that definite purpose and end that it exists. That is what it was organized for more than half a century ago, to give the old men and the boys and the women and the girls, and everybody who for any reason cannot shoulder a gun or take part in the tremendous activity of military movements themselves, a chance to do something.

Now, here we are in the United States with a Red Cross Society which has been standing for that thing for thirty-five years and never had a real chance to show whether it was prepared to do the job or not, until now. Whether it can rise to the great opportunity and do the things it should do in the big splendid way that will be a credit and a source of pride to the members of the society and to the country and to the government and to the world remains to be seen, and whether it does that is going to depend, not on the President or the Directors or the Executive Committee, but on the people of the United States, because the Red Cross does not belong to a little group of people, but to everybody, to every woman and every man in this room just as much as to me or to President Wilson, who happens to be President of the Red Cross as well as of the United States. And it is the intelligent, active, self-sacrificing interest which all of us shall take in the Red Cross, which is the humanitarian arm of our government, that is going to tell the story when the war is over.

We all believe in preparedness. Your meeting here is a tribute to the recognition of the need of preparedness. Preparedness is a thing which everybody accepts as necessary for any work of life, not in war alone, but in all things; in charity, in caring for the defective and the unfortunate, we need preparedness, not only to provide that care, but to prevent the need for it. So the thing the Red Cross stands for is fundamentally the thing which

everybody in this room stands for. We all stand precisely on the same foundation, and every one of those good women in the Federation of Women's Clubs, with the tremendous power that these clubs do exert, can help the country by helping the Red Cross, not alone to do things, but to do things well. I do not mean by that that the Red Cross has got to do everything that is done. Our society is not intended to be monopolistic; but we want to see done what is to be done. If our chapters, our agents, can do the thing and there is no one else doing it and doing it well, it is up to them to do it, but if there is someone else doing it and doing it well, it would be wrong for our agents to break in. The one thing is to get things done. The Red Cross is organized for that, but not at the expense of someone who is already doing a thing and doing it well.

What does the Red Cross have to do in war? We are not in war actually yet; that is, we are theoretically in, but we do not feel it yet. When we begin to feel the bitter depths of war what will the Red Cross be expected to do?

It is expected to do a good many things which I can enumerate, but cannot now go into the description of.

It has to organize hospitals, provide doctors and nurses, take care of wounded men and sick men. It has to transport wounded men from the front back to the hospitals; that means hospital trains, ambulances, hospital ships, wagons, trucks, anything that is available to get the men back where they can be placed in base hospitals and given proper care, base hospitals being the first hospitals and the first they go to. They stop first at a dressing station, a protected point behind a hill or somewhere, for the first dressing, then are taken to a field hospital, a tent or barn or anything out of the range of the guns, where they can be given a little better preparation, and then after that the work of the Red Cross begins; the Red Cross transports them to a real hospital; it may be twenty miles back or a hundred or two hundred or three hundred. The Red Cross has to carry them back and take them to the hospital. Then, men being taken home to recuperate must be fed as they go along, or when being taken to the hospitals. The Red Cross, or at any rate we, the civilian people, are expected to do that. We have an information station in every great army headquarters. That information station is an arrangement by which the Red Cross is the link between the wounded

man in the hospital and the folks back home, keeping them notified of what has happened to their sons, their friends, their fathers or brothers, if they are wounded, telling the folks back home as much about it as the military regulations will permit, also taking charge of records and correspondence for prisoners of war. They would be entitled under international law to have some communication sent to their family and friends at home, and the Red Cross has to look after that. Then there is the care of the families left dependent at home. It is obvious what that means. Then there is the care of the disabled and the discharged men who come home. A man is crippled, has lost a leg or an arm or an eye, and is honorably discharged from service and sent home. His pay stops, the government allowance to the family stops, and he has to be taken care of and readjusted to live and given that sort of inspiration and guidance which will make him again self-supporting as a good citizen.

How big a job is this? Nobody knows how big our job will be. We know something about it by seeing what it is in Europe. I have traveled about in Europe a good deal since the war began, and I was amazed at the magnitude of the work which the Red Cross societies have had to take on. They were not all prepared; the French society was somewhat prepared, the German splendidly, the American totally unprepared, the British unprepared. But now they have got organized, and are all most effective. The British Red Cross to-day requires the entire time of sixty thousand people, not counting the women at home sewing and making bandages, etc., working their lives out, but the people actually giving their whole time either as employed or volunteers. The German Red Cross to-day employs 179,000, without counting the people at home. So the Red Cross, in the magnitude of its operations and the importance of its work in time of war, is second only to the armies of the countries themselves. We have no means of judging how big our work will be, but if we go into war with a million of our young men there is going to be a tremendous piece of work to be done, and something demanded from every single one of us, old and young. (Applause.)

MRS. STOCKTON: We are going to touch this afternoon on one phase of a question which is one of the great questions of this country. I have friends in the South and they say to me as a Northern woman, "I wish you Northern people, when you take

up the negro question, would look at it from all sides, that you would understand our side, and the Western side, and the Eastern side as well as the Northern side, before you judge or act." This afternoon we are going to take up one phase of this big question, and Miss Pendleton will speak first for a short time about the New Jersey situation.

A STATEMENT OF THE NEW JERSEY SITUATION

**Miss Helen B. Pendleton, Executive Secretary, New Jersey
Negro Welfare League**

Madam Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: It is a very American thing that has happened in the coming from the South of a great number of colored people. Ever since our country began immigration has been assisted. The great William Penn sent agents abroad to bring people over to settle in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. When the war stopped immigration from Europe, the employer here was at a loss to know what to do, so he turned to the South, where there are large numbers of negro laborers, and sent agents down there to recruit immigrants, just as forty or fifty years ago the great industries of this country began sending across the water to bring over here millions of European immigrants.

Now, in the coming of these people up from the South to the most congested parts of our country, what has happened? The New Jersey industries of which I speak got excellent laborers on the whole for their work. There is no doubt of that. Please remember I am speaking particularly about the city of Newark, about which I know a little something—Newark and some of the surrounding boroughs. When these people came, at the earnest request of the manufacturers and other industries of New Jersey, they came believing they were going to better their condition. Those of us who are interested in the progress of the negro believe that is true, that the migration is going to better their condition, not only here, but also in the South, but perhaps the great good thing is that it is going to bring a fuller knowledge of the difficulties with which a large group of people are confronted in our country. Unfortunately many of these people came in the fall, and most of those who came to Newark came

from a part of the South near the Gulf of Mexico, where the climate is almost tropical, totally unacquainted with our customs, our ways of working, and unused to the climate, hundreds of them became ill, and many have died from pneumonia.

I went last night to a most interesting meeting, and all the people in the room, except myself, were colored people. I did not have much to say, for I was there merely as a listener, and when the speaker said that these people coming from the South had come believing they were going to the great free States of the North, I thought perhaps I had got the text for a message to white people this afternoon.

Ladies and gentlemen, can we say we are a democracy, can we say these are the great free States of the North, when a group of workingmen, no matter whether they are negroes from the South, no matter whether they are Poles from Galicia, or Italians from Sicily, or Russians from Kief, can we say we are a free people when it is impossible for the workingman of these or any other groups to find a home where his wife and children can live in cleanliness, in healthfulness, and in safety?

The housing conditions in this part of New Jersey have been very wonderfully shown up by the coming of the colored people from the South. I have no time to tell you of the difficult problems these people have been confronted with. The colored man as I know him wants his wife and children around him. The Pennsylvania Railroad says, "We have transported thousands of these people and only a few hundred stuck." As I say, the colored man wants his wife and children around him, and, in coming to Newark, he first went into the camps outside of the city with the idea of staying only long enough to make money to bring his wife and family here. What did he find when they came? That it was impossible to get a decent house for them to live in. Now, I think this is one of the most important things for a conference like this to consider. Yesterday afternoon we were discussing the housing problem, and it seems to me this Conference should go on record as emphasizing the absolute necessity that in this congested part of the United States the working people should have proper homes to live in.

I know a family just arrived from the lower part of Alabama—man and wife and seven children (they almost all have seven children)—living in three rooms, the central room perfectly dark,

and for that they have to pay fourteen dollars a month. The family who moved out of there were white people and they paid nine dollars. The landlady downstairs said quite explicitly that she charged these people fourteen dollars because they were colored.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, this is something I think well worth the consideration of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction. It seems to me, too, that we must get into closer touch with the colored people in our State. Where are they this afternoon? I do not see many colored faces at the New Jersey Conference, and yet we have a hundred thousand in the State. When I first came to Newark I asked, "What do you do about a colored family if it is in trouble in the city of Newark?" "Well, there is not much to do," was the answer; "there are not any institutions, and when there is a colored child to be cared for there is very little we can do." There is something else for the consideration of this Conference.

We know perfectly well that among the hundred thousand colored people who live in the State of New Jersey are hundreds—yes, thousands—of good citizens. I believe we want to know these citizens better. I think it would be a splendid thing for the New Jersey Federation of Women's Clubs to ask every woman who has a colored servant if she knows what her colored servant is thinking about. When white people know what their colored servants are thinking about it will make a good deal of difference. Do we know their aspirations, their thoughts, what advantages they seek for their children, how they look forward to a time when they, too, will be a part of what will then be a real democracy, the social democracy to which this Conference of Charities and Correction stands committed? We talk a good deal about our country as a democracy, especially in a convention like this; we even talk about possessing political democracy in spite of what happened on the nineteenth of October in New Jersey last year, but it seems to me we have serious need to think of what are we doing as members of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction to make it possible for the colored people of this part of New Jersey to have a square deal?

That is the question I leave with you. The coming of the Southern negroes to New Jersey should make us think. It is all very well for us to talk about conditions in Georgia. I hold no

brief for Georgia. I lived there for four years. But there are other conditions not in Georgia that we might talk about, too. I went to the jail in Newark the other day. I was shown the tier on the sunny side of the building, nice and clean and bright and well kept, where the white women prisoners are kept. Then we went around to the dark side. "This is where we keep the negro women," said the matron.

Are we a real democracy? Are we a nation of freemen as long as such discrimination can take place in this State?

MRS. STOCKTON: We are asked to give five minutes to Mr. W. R. Valentine, Principal of the Bordentown School for Colored Youth.

MR. W. R. VALENTINE: I just asked for the privilege of bringing you a little information about the school for colored youth which the State of New Jersey has established at Bordentown, six miles below Trenton, an Industrial School for colored youth over fourteen years of age. It is patterned after the plan of Hampton and Tuskegee, and expects to do extension work in education throughout the State in the manner of Tuskegee and Hampton, just as soon as New Jersey can give the requisite appropriation.

We do not take children under fourteen; it is an educational, not a correctional institution; girls pay \$6.00 a month, boys, \$7.00. That may seem a very small sum, but when you add the amount of work each boy or girl is required to do to assist in the general machinery upkeep of the school it amounts to much more, easily to eleven or twelve dollars per month. We teach trades, such as carpentry, and farming. We cultivate every bit of available ground. The boys do plumbing, printing and blacksmithing, and the girls all kinds of domestic work. We give them half the day in academic work, and half in industrial. You have no idea what can be done with a boy or a girl living in an atmosphere like that of the Bordentown School. The school is on a wonderful site us all the time, twenty-four hours of the day, so that we are able (the property is valued at about \$130,000). We have them with really to influence every phase of life. It is really an intensive method of training boys and girls or young men and women.

We should be delighted to have any of you come down and see us. Perhaps there are none of you here who know just what the State is trying to do in this way. Last year it put \$96,500

into the work and for next year appropriated \$76,000, including permanent improvements. The State is, therefore, in earnest about the school. It is under the direction of the State Board of Education. I have outlined briefly what the State of New Jersey is attempting for the development of colored people; I feel it will be a great factor in the State if properly maintained, as I believe it will be.

If any one who desires any information about the school will write to the Principal at any time it will be very gladly sent.

I thank you for giving me this opportunity to speak, because I know what it means to break into a programme.

MRS. STOCKTON: I am sure we all wish that every colored boy and girl could have the advantage of this opportunity. I will go further and say I wish every boy and girl could have the opportunity of partly mental and partly physical training every day. One of the humiliating things that this war has brought out is that so many of the women, and men, are not in a position to offer one perfect thing to the country; we do many things but not one well enough to be of real service. Let us see to it that not only colored youth but all youth may come to have a real service to offer.

RELATIVE ADVANTAGE AND DISADVANTAGE OF THE NEGRO IN THE NORTH AND IN THE SOUTH

Professor Kelly Miller, Dean, College of Arts and Sciences,
Howard University, Washington, D. C.

Madam Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: After all the participants from New Jersey have been heard you have called on an outsider. I am sorry I am not from New Jersey, but today I feel as if I were from Missouri.

I am going to talk to you, I trust in an inspirational, if in rather an informal manner, on the subject that has been announced, though I shall at least stick as close to my subject as the minister does to his text.

The contact, the attrition and the adjustment of the various races of mankind constitute a question which is coterminous with

the ends of the earth. The race problems of the world today cover the landed area as completely as the waters cover the sea. In Asia, in Africa, in Europe, in the two western continents, in Australia, in the scattered islands of the seas, we find that the contact and attrition of races is the one great question which characterizes the relations of men in the world to-day.

In the United States we have but a fraction, an infinitesimal fragment of this universal race question, and yet our domestic race problem has such peculiarly interesting features that the student of social problems is wont to bestow on it a degree of attention accorded to no other question of race contact in the world.

In 1620 there began to pour into the continent two streams of population, one coming from the most enlightened continent and the other from the most bedarkened continent of the world, and these two streams have gone on, increasing in volume and in a continuous rush, until now we have a population of 100,000,000 human beings, divided between the races in the ratio of ten to one.

It was Voltaire, I believe, the French sceptic and philosopher, who said that it is more difficult and more meritorious to wean men from their prejudices than to civilize the barbarian. Here we have the dual aspect of the race problem explained in the concise terms of a French aphorism. How can the white race be weaned from its prejudices while we are civilizing and uplifting and reclaiming the African in our midst?

Either of these problems is sufficient to tax human ingenuity, but when we roll the two into one we stand appalled at the task, and to add to the difficulty it seems the two factors are inseparable.

The good old slave, faithful and loyal to the welfare of his master, was acceptable to the white race; but the more ambitious son, with a college diploma, is likely to be *persona non grata*.

The negro race, for economic reasons, located in one section of the country. The institution of slavery was not considered to involve a moral issue at the time the population began to flow to this country, and when the northern section did not prove hospitable slavery was relegated to the South, because that proved to be a profitable section for the employment of slave labor.

Just before the invention of the cotton gin, when slavery had begun to be unprofitable in the northern tier of the Southern

States, a great many of the Southern leaders were advocates of emancipation—Washington, Jefferson and Madison, for instance. Slavery had proved unprofitable, but when Eli Whitney, a Yankee from Connecticut, invented the cotton gin, slavery was profitable again, and we heard no more about emancipation from the South. I presume if it had been profitable in Massachusetts the conditions would have been the same as in the South. However that may be, the negro has been settled in the South because of climatic and industrial and economic situation. It might seem that this race would have rushed from the South to the North because of the freer conditions prevailing in the North—freer political and civil and educational conditions. Why have they remained down South all these years when they might have moved North for the railroad fare?

People do not emigrate in quest of free institutions or religious freedom or civil conditions. Compared to the few who have come here in quest of free institutions, the mere handful of people in the Mayflower, you may say that the people who have come in a hundred years in quest of improved industrial and economic opportunity are legion. People are very much like birds; we see them moving from South to North in the spring and back to the South in the fall. That is just what the negro immigrant is going to do. These birds are in quest of better feeding ground. The gates of Castle Garden swing inward. That is because wages are higher in America than in Europe. If wages were higher in Europe than in America they would swing outward. If wages in New York were suddenly changed to twice those of New Jersey, there would not be in all New Jersey an Irishman left, certainly not a Jew, and very few people of any description. And if the reverse were true they would move from New York to New Jersey. So the negro is moving from the South to the North today because of the sudden economic opportunities that have opened up to him. They are impelled by the same motive which impels the minister of the gospel to change his pulpit. This is a human motive, and we may discuss it all we please and condemn it all we please or commend it all we please, but just as long as wages are three times in New Jersey what they are in Georgia they will go to New Jersey.

Now where the negro goes he carries his problems with him, and as he goes into the North he takes his problems there. The

unsatisfactory, rigorous regimes in the South are fostering and stimulating this movement northward though they are not fundamentally the underlying cause. I live in Washington, and I know a great many people go from the North to the South as soon as they are graduated from the colleges in the North—go to the South in quest of a field in which to exploit their attainments and powers; and in just the same way the negroes are coming from the South to the North to find a better field for their activities. It is true that this movement will react on the South and inevitably bring about more satisfactory living conditions for the negroes there. The Southern white man sometimes claims he cannot get along with the negro, and when the negro leaves he finds he can't get along without him.

War always results in readjustment of peoples. And people at the bottom of society are always the ones who are the chief beneficiaries. They say sometimes that it is the poor man who has to fight the wars, but in the long run it is the poor man who gets the benefit of the war directly or indirectly. As a result of this war already many of the poor man's disabilities have been removed. Russia has become a democracy, even Germany is inoculated with the germs of democracy. The working man in France and in Italy and in England and everywhere will receive stimulus and uplift as a result of the war which he could not have brought about by a hundred years of agitation. And it has reacted on the negro of the South. For it is the war that has opened the new economic opportunity to him in the North. He has been politically disfranchised in the South, but in the North he has been industrially disfranchised. I am not going to say which is the more important of those two facts, but at any rate he has become industrially enfranchised in the North and now he is moving away from the South where he had been politically disfranchised.

Mr. Booker T. Washington knew more about the relation of races than any man, white or black, who lived in a generation. He had an intuitive insight, a God-given understanding of this delicate question—somewhat the sort of vision that Abraham Lincoln possessed; he knew without learning. And yet see how far short his prophecies fell. He said in his day that the negro had the opportunity in the North of spending a dollar but not of earning it, and in the South of earning it but not of spending it. Yet in the brief period of two years all this has been changed, and he

has opportunity in the North both to earn and to spend the dollar, and will soon have like opportunity in the South.

The world is divided into three classes, represented by the three symbols in algebra. There are a number of people who must get from society more than they give back. They are represented by the negative, always subtracting from the equation of life. The negro race belong to the negative side of the equation, because of circumstances over which they have had no control. Then we have those who receive about as much as they give back. These are represented by the "equal" sign. They are a step above the first class but in an unsatisfactory stage nevertheless. Then we have those who have surplus powers and energies not only for their own needs but to devote to the betterment of those less fortunate than themselves. These are represented by the positive sign in algebra.

The white race in large numbers represents the positive side. It is to these elements that all progress is due. The chief task in algebra is one of transportation, and this is precisely the chief task in social welfare, to shift individuals and races and groups from the negative to the positive side of the equation of life. Those who have been benefitted and put onto the positive from the negative side have, in their turn, to lift up those on the negative side of the equation.

I have not any ultimate philosophy as an outcome of the race problem, but I do know with the certitude of science and the infallible assurance of inspiration that whenever an individual who has been ignorant has been made intelligent, when one who was vicious has been made virtuous, the sum total of human good has been added to; and that, therefore, the chief task of those on the positive side, whether North or South, is to take the man on the negative side and transpose him to the positive side of the equation of life.

Now the negro in the South has some advantages. He has the advantage of climate. I doubt whether the northern climate is suitable for the permanent habitat of the negro. Nobody has studied this yet from the statistical point of view. But it seems to me that the negro race does not thrive in the North except as reinforced from the South. The Yankees do not seem to thrive either for that matter—they are gradually dying out!

In the South the housing conditions are free and easy. I

have been through the South thousands upon thousands of miles. I was born in the South. I was born almost out of doors, like Booker T. Washington. I have seen these cabins down there in the South, and I want to say that these cabins about which we hear so much have one advantage and one virtue—they admit of free and ample ventilation, and that is an immense advantage over the tenement houses which the negroes are forced to occupy in the North. There is not a cabin in southern Virginia so unsuitable as a place of abode as that basement tenement which Miss Pendleton spoke about. So when the negro comes to the North and is subject to these unsanitary housing conditions, you may not be disappointed if his vital equation declines.

I am glad in a way that the negro is coming to the North and bringing his problems face to face with the people of the North. We can never express our gratitude to the northern white people, the best of them, for what they have done in the uplifting of the race, especially in the early years after the War. They left their homes, their friends, their firesides, all they held dear, to go to the remote South to labor for the uplifting of the slaves. As long as the human heart beats in response to benefits received, so long these angels of mercy and light who sowed the seed of intelligence in the soil of ignorance and planted the rose of beauty in the garden of shame will never want for a living monument of ebony and bronze.

But this was a long circuit. You know philanthropy on a long circuit is easier than on a short circuit. The negro is coming into your midst, and you want to exercise that philanthropy now within your gates. You may recall perhaps the case of the pious slave-holding lady in North Carolina who was so concerned with the missionary movement in China that she stole a slave in order to add to the missionary contribution.

Now the negro is going to learn when he comes to the North that he has every political advantage that the rest of the population has, every educational advantage, and these are very important considerations. But there is something that he can learn in the North which is perhaps the greatest of all advantages for him; he can learn that efficiency which distinguishes the northern white man, who in this respect sets a higher standard than the southern white man. The negro can learn by degrees to acquire this higher method and efficiency—can learn what is meant by

initiative—can acquire the ability to do a thing without being told. Initiative is the ability to do the right thing without being told; efficiency is the ability to do the thing right when you have been told.

Our Saviour said, "He that would be great among you, let him be your servant." It takes a pretty great man to understand that. The northern white man has in a measure learnt that lesson that without service there is no distinction. The South has rather thought that the greatest was he who had most people to serve him. But we must learn the significance of the Saviour's saying, that greatness and service are in exact ratio. That is a lesson the negro can learn better in the North than in the South. It makes no difference what the service is; it depends on the skill, the energy, the enterprise injected into the service whether it is service that makes for honor.

I was down in Atlanta, and there were two men there who had hit upon an enterprise and put business system into it and had made fame and fortune out of it. It was a preparation called Coca-Cola. It is absolutely nothing but cold water and a little molasses, and a dash of dope thrown in. All the rest is energy and enterprise. They told me down there it was not half so soothing or refreshing as the concoction the old colored butler used to pour, called mint julep. But the trouble with the butler was that he never had energy to prepare more than one julep at a time.

You have probably heard of the controversy between two senators from the South recently, who did not speak to each other. The real basis of the trouble was that the mother of the one sold peanuts for a living, while the father of the other sold slaves. It was an honorable thing to deal in the one of those commodities, but not so honorable to trade in the other. The cabman who hauls a single passenger from the depot is engaged in the same kind of service as the Pennsylvania Railroad. The Pennsylvania gets the more honor because it renders its service more efficiently. Your washerwoman is engaged in the same service as the big laundry corporation. The laundry corporation has more science and system and more business-like methods. They are growing quite fastidious in the South; you see on the laundry wagon the words: "We work for white people only." Even that is nothing new, however; that is precisely what the colored woman

has been doing all these years; she worked for white people only. They need not put on airs, for they are all taking in washing. The oil peddler who peddles oil in the street by the pint is in partnership with John D. Rockefeller; they are both giving oil to the world, only John D. Rockefeller has more oil. The farmer who makes two blades of grass grow where one grew before is a co-worker with God (applause)—we appreciate that in these times! So there is nothing high and nothing low; there is no such thing as servile service—except service that is rendered in a servile spirit.

I used to be concerned about the superiority of the white race and the inferiority of the negro race, but I don't feel like that now. If anyone is superior to me I am glad to know it. I am five feet eleven inches tall, and if you are taller I am glad to know it. I believe there is no such thing as racial superiority. There is individual superiority. The Germans are superior to the English in the art of war, man for man, but it is discipline and efficiency and training and experience, not racial superiority.

So I say, it is well that the negro shall have this opportunity today to get hold of the broader and more efficient ways of the North, well for him even if eventually it shall prove that his permanent habitat should be in the South. I feel that while there has been a strong current of movement to the North, the centre of gravity is still steadily about the Gulf of Mexico.

In the South values are cheap—in the North values are high. I stayed with a man in the State of Virginia who was receiving a wage of \$1.25 a day. He had built a six room house, bought ten acres of land, planted fruit trees, and said that he hoped within a few years to make his living on that ten acres of land. What that man has done practically every negro in the South could do, but in the North that would be practically impossible. I do not see how any working man can ever hope in ordinary circumstances to get hold of values in New York City, or to own his own home, although his wages may be very high for the time being. But in the South values are low. And the opportunity of the poor man will always be found in the open country where land is cheap and values are not high. Therefore I believe the home of the negro will be in the South rather than in the North. Yet I do not believe in the principle of segregating the negro in the South or any part of the South. There are ten million negroes in

the United States, and we have been in the habit hitherto, for the most part, of treating them as one man—they must all live in the North, or they must all live in the South; they must all live in the city, or they must all live on farms, or they must all be servants. There are ten million of this race in the United States, and I believe that among that ten million there are all the different aptitudes of humanity. I want some of them, the bulk of them, to live in the South. I think their destiny is there; I think it better they should be agricultural rather than industrial people, and the value and worth of agriculture is increasing or becoming more appreciated. But I want to see them in the North too, coming in contact with the highest standards of the North. But when they come to the North you want to be careful that you do not allow them to change the attitude of the North into that of the South.

You may not like the negro. People don't like each other very well anyway. The white race fall out with each other, and wrangle, and go to war and kill each other for every conceivable reason under heaven, and over every conceivable proposition except the one proposition of how to treat the negro. But granted that you do not like him, it is the part of common prudence to give him these human advantages. If you and I were on a steamboat together we might not like each other, but if I were to get small-pox I should certainly be a great object of solicitude because you might get it too. The germs of ignorance and vice are just as contagious as those of physical disease; therefore it is incumbent on the North to see that the negro people as they come in are given the proper advantages.

I think one way in which the North and South can co-operate to help the negro to the best advantage is by raising up and sustaining a class of leaders in the race itself. A white man cannot be a leader among us unless he is willing to be naturalized. We want to raise up among these people a class of leaders who shall stand on a high plane of intellectual and moral authority and guide them right and keep them in the right direction.

In Howard University we have an institution of fifteen hundred colored men and women who are preparing for high places of leadership and guidance among the people. We have three hundred young men studying medicine; they are the missionaries of health, and the world is going to need them today as never before. Others are studying for the ministry, to stand in the high

places of moral authority; others are to be teachers, to guide the youth of our race in the way they should go. If you want to keep these people in the North, and if you want them to go in the direction they should go, you will have to rely largely on the colored churches and organizations and activities, and give them your sympathy and support.

There are three factors in the race problem of this country: the white man in the South; the white man in the North; and the negro himself. There is a disposition on the part of the North and South to come together and eliminate the negro. I think the two physicians ought at least to ask the patient how the treatment feels. I am sure we can reach a *modus vivendi*, but we ought not to be too anxious or feel too hasty about "settling the race problem." There are no infallible cures for anything. If you see a man drowning your impulse is to offer him immediate and unconditional rescue. And when you see the negro in your midst in need of help and uplift and treatment it is your duty to throw out the life line and offer him immediate and unconditional rescue, and leave the question of ultimate destiny in the hands of that God who shapes all human ends.

THE CHAIRMAN: I am sure we all feel that we have been started upon lines of thought that it behooves us to follow out and deeply consider.

This address brings our meeting to a close, and we shall adjourn.

BUSINESS SESSION

Tuesday Afternoon, May 1, 1917

The President, Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson, Presiding

The reports of the treasurer, organization committee, resolution committee and nominating committee were made.

Eulogy to Mr. Ogden

Upon the resignation of Mr. Ogden as treasurer, Mrs. Witt-penn offered a special resolution of appreciation for his untiring efforts and ceaseless devotion to the financial interests of the Conference. The resolution was heartily accepted.

CLOSING REMARKS OF PRESIDENT

MRS. THOMPSON: When I was made President I accepted the position with hesitancy and some reluctance, but I want to say that I have enjoyed it, and I thank the committees who have worked with me and borne the burden of the work. I want also to express much gratitude to Montclair for making this Conference a success. The sense of personal kindness and friendliness, the sense that we all have had here of being taken care of and treated with more than hospitality, has been very grateful and pleasing to every one of us, I know, and will always be a charming recollection. And I want to say that while you have lost me in an official capacity I shall return as a private citizen and I hope you will receive me as kindly when I come that way!

And having finished my administration I would like to introduce the next incumbent, a gentleman with so much more experience that it is with the pleasant sense of doing a last service to the Conference that I step down and give him my place. May I introduce Mr. Robert L. Flemming, our new President?

REMARKS OF PRESIDENT-ELECT

MR. ROBERT L. FLEMMING, *Jersey City*: I wish to express my appreciation of your kindness in electing me to office as your President, and in doing so I wish also to say as I did in my talk before the Monday morning meeting that since the beginning of the War I have passed my summers in Canada, and have seen

what has happened to the Charities in that country, and I want to say this—that the members who are now assuming office are more than willing to help the people of the State of New Jersey to do what they can to meet the situation that is about to come here. The people in Canada did not wake up soon enough, and I beg of you who are interested in the various charities in the State of New Jersey that you do your bit to gather together proper funds. Do not wait till next fall or next year, when the burden of the increased cost of living will be so great that you may not be able to collect sufficient to help those dependent on you. Start right in now to meet the situation, to meet the demands, to gather in the additional workers who will have to assume this burden. Those who are now taking office, I can assure you, will do all they can to assist in this work; and we offer our services freely and gladly to assist you in meeting this situation.

The organization is such that we cannot take up any great active work in organization of and carrying out new work. Anything of that sort will be done by us as individuals and not as a Conference, but we can help you in supplying speakers or in an advisory capacity or in any such ways, and on behalf of myself and the new officials I say that we shall be more than glad to confer with you and give what assistance we can in the awful situation that confronts us.

I thank you again for my election to this office, and once more assure you that I will do my best to carry on the work that has been done by those before me. If I can only make the next Conference as successful as Mrs. Thompson has this, I shall pass the work on to my successor with confidence and great joy.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZATION

To the Members of the Conference:

At the annual meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections, held last year in Hoboken, the following resolution was reported by the committee on resolution and adopted by the Conference:

“Resolved, That a Committee of nine be appointed by the President to recommend such changes in the form of the organization and management of the Conference as may in its judgment be expedient, which report shall be sent in printed form by the

Secretary to all subscribing members of the Conference at least two weeks before the next annual meeting."

President Weeks named the following persons as members of this Committee:

Augustine Elmendorf, Chairman.

Mrs. H. Otto Wittpenn.

Mr. Isaac C. Ogden.

Mr. Ernest D. Easton.

Prof. E. R. Johnstone.

Mr. Robert L. Flemming.

Mr. C. L. Stonaker.

Prof. Frank Fetter.

Mrs. Sidney M. Colgate.

This Committee has held four meetings, one at Skillman, May 25th, one in Newark, June 22nd, one in Hoboken, November 28th, and one in Newark, January 17th. Resulting from these meetings have come the following proposals as last amended:

First. That the Executive Committee of the New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections shall consist of fifteen members to be elected at the annual meeting, and the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, with the State Commissioner of Charities and Corrections ex-officio. Five of the elective members shall be chosen for one year, five for two years and five for three years, and thereafter all elective members shall be elected for three years. The Conference at its annual meetings shall elect members to fill vacancies for the unexpired terms respectively.

Second. The incoming president shall appoint a nominating committee of nine, which shall present its report on the last day of the next annual Conference, said committee having in the meantime through the Secretary of the Conference, asked for suggestions as to the officers and the executive committee, from the members of the advisory board.

Third. The Conference shall elect an advisory board of forty members for a term of one year, who shall as far as possible be representative of all societies and agencies throughout the State interested in and affiliated in any way with the purpose of the State Conference. The advisory board shall be invited to sit with the executive committee at its first two meetings and participate in the deliberations, and to other meetings at the call of the President.

Fourth. The executive committee may assign time and place on the program or otherwise authorize section meetings for organizations or groups as may be approved by said committee, on terms to be approved by the committee.

Fifth. That no publication of proceedings of section meetings in the annual proceeding shall be allowed without first having the approval of the executive committee.

Sixth. The program of section meetings shall be subject to executive committee's approval before printing in preliminary or official program.

Seventh. That the executive committee shall arrange that no other meeting shall be held at headquarters than those first approved by said committee.

Eighth. That the Program Committee shall allow reasonable time for discussion from the floor.

This report was submitted to all members of the Committee on January 16th, and subsequently a request came from the Nominating Committee to the effect that this report should include also a recommendation to the effect that the Secretary of the Conference be elected by the Executive Committee instead of by the Conference annually. No meeting was called subsequently, but by correspondence it was learned that the members of the committee were not in agreement upon this change in the method of electing the Secretary.

Your committee submits herewith the text of the proposed changes to the constitution and by-laws in conformity to the above recommendations.

Respectfully submitted,
AUGUSTUS ELMENDORF,
Chairman.

C. L. STONAKER,
Secretary to the Committee.
May 1st, 1917.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Your committee on resolutions expresses its appreciation of the excellent program prepared for this Conference, and wishes to thank the writers of the papers and the speakers who have each one contributed to making this meeting unusually helpful and constructive.

It wishes to call attention to the valuable exhibits that have been displayed and is especially grateful to Mrs. Joseph Van Vleck, Jr., for her work in gathering the special exhibit of Montclair agencies.

The Committee voices the gratitude of all visitors to Montclair for the delightful hospitality in private homes, to the local clergy and their congregations for the use of the churches, to the Boy Scouts, to the members of the Montclair Club and the ladies of the Baptist, Episcopal and Congregational churches for their luncheons and to the Women's Club of Upper Montclair for their reception at the Commonwealth Club; also to the citizens who placed their automobiles at the disposal of guests.

Resolutions

Your Committee feels that it is opportune to present the following special resolutions for the consideration and vote of the Conference:

WHEREAS, Our country now faces a serious international situation which will test the resources and patriotic spirit of the whole nation, and

WHEREAS, Special duties and special endeavors will be demanded from every individual and from every group of citizens to carry through successfully the great undertaking that involves the honor of our nation and the ultimate peace and welfare of the civilized world. Therefore be it

Resolved, That it is the sense of this New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction assembled at Montclair April 29th-May 1st, 1917, that the social workers of the State and of the nation have a peculiar and priceless service to perform in this crisis.

That there is a supreme need to maintain unimpaired throughout the war the various charitable and correctional agencies.

That Child Welfare will call for careful guardianship as never before.

That the women and children left unprotected and dependent because of the absence of husbands and fathers, be efficiently and adequately aided.

That the youth of both sexes left unprotected and exposed to

unusual temptations be made the object of our most particular solicitude and effort.

That in support of this critically important social work, this Conference hereby pledges its loyal and untiring efforts.

Be it Also Resolved, That this Conference recommends to all social workers full and active co-operation with State and National authorities seeking to increase agricultural products.

MRS. CAROLINE B. WITTPENN, Chairman,
REV. J. C. STOCK,
MR. RALPH ROSENBAUM,
MISS CORNELIA F. BRADFORD,
REV. J. C. WELLS,
DR. MADELEINE A. HALLOWELL,
PROF. FRANK A. FETTER.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Mrs. G. W. B. Cushing, Chairman.	Rev. Walter Reid Hunt
C. L. Stonaker	A. W. MacDougall
John A. Cullen	Miss Margaret MacNaughton
Prof. E. R. Johnstone	Mrs. Leon Cubberly

See page — for Officers, Executive Committee and Advisory Board of 1918 Conference.

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

The New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction as Revised 1917

Adopted 1912. Revised 1913, 1916, 1917.

The objects of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction are to afford an opportunity for those engaged in relief, reform and preventive work to confer respecting their methods, principles of administration and results accomplished, to diffuse reliable information respecting preventive, relief and correctional work, and encourage co-operation in humanitarian efforts, with the aim of further improving the system of prevention, care, relief and correction in the State of New Jersey.

The Conference shall not formulate any platform, nor adopt memoranda, nor adopt resolutions other than those of appreciation and thanks for services and courtesies to the Conference.

By-Laws**ARTICLE I.***Membership of the Conference.*

All who have any active interest in the public or private relief or correctional work in New Jersey are invited to enroll themselves as members of the Conference. No other tests of membership shall be applied and no membership fee charged, the expenses of the Conference being met by voluntary contributions.

ARTICLE II.*Officers of the Conference.*

The Conference shall have the following officers, to be elected annually: (1) A President, who shall preside over the session of the Conference and of the Executive Committee; be a member ex-officio of all committees, and with the assistance of the secretary, supervise the editing of the proceedings of the Conference.

The incoming President shall appoint a Nominating Committee of nine persons, which shall present its report on the last day of the annual conference, said committee having in the meantime through the Secretary of the Conference asked for suggestions as to the officers and the Executive Committee, from members of the Advisory Board.

(2) Six Vice-Presidents, who shall, at the request of the President, assist the President in the discharge of the President's duties, and, in case of the President's inability to serve, shall succeed the President in the order in which they are named.

(3) A Secretary, who shall keep the records, conduct the correspondence and distribute the papers and documents of the Conference, under the direction of the Executive Committee. He shall assist the President in editing the proceedings of the Conference and direct the work of the Assistant Secretaries. The Secretary shall be a member ex-officio of all committees.

(4) Three Assistant Secretaries, who shall assist the Secretary of the Conference, at his request, and work under his direction.

5. A Treasurer, who shall receive all moneys of the Conference and disburse the same, upon vouchers duly certified by the Secretary, the expenditure having been approved by the President.

ARTICLE III.

Committees of the Conference.

(1) An Executive Committee, which shall consist of fifteen members to be elected at the annual meeting, five to be chosen for one year, five for two years, and five for three years, and thereafter all elective members shall be elected for a term of three years. The Conference at its annual meetings shall elect members to fill vacancies for the unexpired terms respectively. The President, Secretary, Treasurer, and the State Commissioner of Charities and Corrections, shall be ex-officio members of the Executive Committee.

The Executive Committee shall have charge of all business relating to the Conference, and may appoint such other committees as it may deem desirable, except the Auditing Committee.

The Executive Committee may assign time and place on the program or otherwise authorize section meetings of organizations or groups on terms to be approved by said committee. Programs of section meetings shall be subject to the Executive Committee's approval before printing in a preliminary or official program, and no publication of proceedings of section meetings in the annual report of the Conference shall be allowed without first having the approval of the Executive Committee. Reasonable time for discussion from the floor is to be provided.

The Executive Committee shall arrange that no other meetings shall be held at headquarters than those first approved by the committee.

(2) An Advisory Board of not more than forty members to be elected annually by the Conference for a term of one year, who shall as far as possible be representative of all societies and agencies throughout the State interested in and affiliated in any way with the purposes of the Conference. The Advisory Board shall be invited to sit with the Executive Committee at its first two meetings and participate in the deliberations, and at other meetings at the request of the President.

(3) An Auditing Committee, which shall consist of three members, to be elected annually by the Conference, to serve the same year and report to the next Conference.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NEW JERSEY

CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES

AND CORRECTION

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

NEWARK

APRIL 21, 22, 23

1918

RAHWAY N. J.
NEW JERSEY REFORMATORY PRINT
1918

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N. J. CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

NEWARK, APRIL 21, 22, 23, 1918.

FOREWORD

The central thought of the Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction was on "War Activities and Their Effect Upon the Home Charities." Taking Care of Soldiers' families by the Red Cross or otherwise, was found to have the same problem and to require the same tact and skill as others. There was a demand for "Holding the Home Lines," but in a modified form to suit existing war conditions. It was essential that all charities make quick shift to meet the new demands.

In maintaining standards in war times, elaborate statistics were given showing that few of the essential charities had suffered financially. Apparently the spirit of giving and the desire to help had been aroused in many who had never given before. In Maintaining Standards in Industries and the Schools, it was found to be more difficult. The high wages paid and the demands for labor have tempted many children to apply for working papers and leave school as soon as the law will permit them to do so.

The attitude of the State and Federal Employment Bureau in finding jobs for the handicapped was very encouraging. It was hoped, however, that growing out of the war, the same attitude and consideration would be shown the industrially crippled as the victims of war. It was regretted that very few reconstruction or rehabilitation hospitals had been started or applied for. This delay would cause many victims to become chronic that otherwise might have been saved.

An interesting session was held on community services other than relief, the different war agencies in and out of camp explaining their work. By means of recreation and education, spiritual and ethical, not only the morale of the soldier is maintained and elevated but the morals of the community are preserved.

The importance of the skilled social engineer was shown in an interesting diagram. If he is autocratic, imposing his standards without regard to the interests and prejudices of others he is a failure. If he is individualistic, believing that there should be little or no control and little or no organization backing up his program he is also a failure. If he believes in the happy medium and can weld the ambitions, desires and the jealousies of mankind into helpful relationships, then he is effective. A reconstructed democracy implies organization and control and at the same time freedom for individual initiative. The war is developing this type of social engineer to an unusual extent. This kind of efficiency was exemplified in a paper on "The Relation of a Board of Directors to the Superintendent, typifying the new State Board and the various State institutions.

E. D. E.

ORGANIZATION OF THE NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, 1918-1919

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Secretary, ERNEST D. EASTON.....Newark

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Robert L. Flemming	A. W. MacDougall	Mrs. F. C. Jacobson
Rev. Augustine Elmendorf	Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson	Rabbi Solomon Foster
Frank A. Fettridge	John A. Cullen	Mrs. Sidney M. Colgate
Mrs. G. W. B. Cushing	Rt. Rev. Wilson R. Stearly	Judge Edward Schoen

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Seymour L. Cromwell

Isaac C. Ogden

Richard Stevens

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In Addition to the General Committee Appointed by the Mayor, the following
Special Committees

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Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, *Vice-Chairman*

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Assisted by Ladies of Contemporary

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Mrs. H. R. Kingsley
Assisted by Daughters of Trinity Cathedral

BADGES

Don S. Gates, *Chairman*

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Officers and Chairman of Above Local Committees

THE EXHIBIT

The Exhibit, in connection with the Newark meeting of the State Conference, was smaller than at previous Conferences, due, in part, to the limited space available, but due also to the conviction that a smaller exhibit, well chosen, would more effectively tell the story it intended to tell.

The Exhibit occupied the south aisle of the Ball Room at the Robert Treat Hotel and a part of the east aisle.

A special feature of the Exhibit was the exhibit of the Red Cross with a demonstration by the trained nurses of the Home Service Department. There was also a demonstration by the Double Day Finger Guild of the Cocker-Wheeler Company showing the successful experiment of that company in providing remunerative work for the blind. The State Board Tenement Home Supervision had an interesting transparency and the local Departments of Health and Education showed charts describing their work.

NEWARK PHILANTHROPIES

Newark has a wealth of charitable and philanthropic activities which form interesting studies. Special trips were arranged to see a number of the following:

HOSPITALS—City Hospital, St. Barnabas', St. Michael's, Beth Israel, St. James', Homeopathic, Women's and Children's, Presbyterian, Babies', Maternity, Eye and Ear, Home for Crippled Children, Home for Incurables, German Hospital.

CLINICS—Tuberculosis, Child Hygiene, Diseases of Skin, Eye, Ear, Throat and Nose, Nervous Diseases, etc. (Board of Health). School Clinics, including psychopathic (Market Street School), Babies' (Babies' Hospital). Most of the above Hospitals also have clinics. Dental, in schools.

RELIEF, NURSING AND WELFARE—Bureau Associated Charities, Confidential Exchange, United Hebrew Charities, Female Charitable Society, Newark Anti-Tuberculosis Association, Visiting Nurse Association, Workroom for Women, Newark Exchange for Women's Work, Crazy Jane Society, Legal Aid Society, N. J. Commission for the Blind.

CHILDREN'S AGENCIES—Children's Aid Society, Catholic Children's Aid Association, Protestant Foster Home Society, Home for the Friendless, Hebrew Orphan Asylum, Newark Orphan Asylum, St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, St. Peter's Orphan Asylum, Odd Fellows' Home.

DAY NURSERIES—East Side, Eighth Avenue, Jewish Sisterhood, Sarah Ward Memorial, Burke Memorial, Crazy Jane, Holy Angels' Day Nursery, St. Columbia's.

HOMES FOR AGED—Bethany Home, Colored Home, Little Sisters of the Poor, Daughters of Israel Home, Job Haines, Home for Respectable Aged Women, Baptist Home for the Aged, City Home for the Aged (Almshouse, Ivy Hill).

REFORM AND LODGINGS—Essex County Parental Home, Florence Crittenton Home, Christian Refuge, House of the Good Shepherd, Essex County Home for Discharged Women Prisoners, Rescue Home, Jewish Wayfarers' House, Salvation Army, Good Will Home.

EDUCATIONAL AND CORRECTIONAL (Public)—Essex County Parental Home, Juvenile Court, House of Detention, Essex County Jail, Newark Parental Home (Verona).

CIVIC—Public Library and Museum, N. J. Historical Society, Y. W. C. A., Y. M. C. A., Public Baths, Playgrounds, Boy Scouts, Settlements.

SCHOOLS—For Defective, Blind, Deaf, Vocational (Girls' and Boys'), Open Air for Tuberculous and Anaemic, Ungraded (Truant).

OPENING MEETING

Sunday Evening, April 21st, 1918, 8 o'clock

General Topic: MOBILIZATION OF SOCIAL FORCES

PRELUDE—Selection by Trinity Cathedral Choir.

INVOCATION—Rt. Rev. Msgr. Isaac P. Whelan, Newark.

Great God, we humble ourselves before Thee, we adore Thee; we accept Thee to be our creator, our Sovereign Lord, our first beginning and our last end. We beg of Thee to enlighten our minds, to warm our hearts, that we may act wisely on the problems that are coming before us for the amelioration of sinful distress and any kind of human misery that we may have to consider. Bless us, O God, that every work of ours may be by Thee wisely begun and through Thee happily ended, through Jesus Christ, our Lord, Amen.

SELECTION BY THE CHOIR.

A WORD OF WELCOME—Hon. Charles P. Gillen, Mayor of Newark.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: This is the Seventeenth Annual Conference of the Charities and Correction of the State of New Jersey. It is very timely, because the public has in mind the great sacrifices brought on by the war, and will no doubt demand greater activity on the part of those interested in charities than ever before. It is to be hoped that it may result in great good. The purpose of this conference is one of the noblest that mankind can dedicate itself to, and therefore I consider it a great honor, as Mayor of the City of Newark, to have the pleasure of welcoming delegates to this great meeting. We hope you will find our city a pleasant place to stay, and that the people of Newark are warm-hearted and democratic and delighted to have you here.

It is also a great pleasure and honor to have the opportunity of welcoming to this city one of the great men of the nation—not only a great man as far as achievement is concerned and of public service well done, but one who has endeared himself to all the people of this nation.

GREETINGS—Benjamin S. Whitehead, Chairman Local Committee.

It is my privilege to extend a greeting from the Local Committee to the delegates and guests from throughout the State. The time is past when it is incumbent upon us only to "do our bit." The time has come when we must do our best and those who gather here tonight have at heart the interest of those great institutions that exist in this country carrying a humanitarian work while our great armies abroad are fighting for us there. It is to our friends in Newark that we wish to make a special plea tonight, that their loyal support will be given to our local institutions and to our State institutions or charities and corrections. We feel that now is the time, if at any time, when they need your support and your encouragement, and those who are giving their time so unselfishly and so thoroughly to this work are welcome to Newark. Newark extends the key to the city and we want you to stay as long as you will and we can assure you a warm welcome. I trust that the days that follow in which these serious things are discussed will be taken advantage of so that we may be nearer the solution of many perplexing problems. These are really sacred tasks. We feel that each one of us have a great personal responsibility, and so I take the greatest pleasure in extending this word of greeting to the delegates on behalf of our Local Committee.

RESPONSE AND PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

**Robert L. Flemming, President, New Jersey Conference of Charities
and Correction, 1918**

It gives me great pleasure to welcome you here tonight, and especially, the new addition to the ranks of the army of social workers which has been recruited by the Red Cross and other war agencies. The war has forced us all to take a different view of life, has aroused a true religious feeling, has taught us that we are "Our Brother's Keeper" and that we must protect the weak and helpless, if we are to recover from the devastating effects of the war. The last conference elected me president, not for any great ability I possess, but as a recognition of the fact that New Jersey is thoroughly aroused to the necessity of protecting its children, guaranteeing to them, as far as possible a decent home life.

It is customary for the president of this Conference to give a summary of the work of the year, but we are at war, and old customs are being swept aside and our whole energy and time should be used to prepare for the future. I, therefore, feel justified in speaking of new legislation rather than old. There are two subjects that will be brought before the next legislature that should be carefully considered, as they are vital to the future of our State. The first deals with the health of laborers of the State and the second with the care of children.

These are two problems, vitally affecting the welfare of the citizens of the State, which should be solved as speedily as possible. The first one is how to conserve the health of the workers in our factories; the wealth of the State depends on the ability of its citizens to work, and if we can raise the standard of the health of the laborers we will, of necessity, increase the wealth of the State. A practical method for securing this result has been offered in the report of the

Old Age Pension Commission which recommends a system of Health Insurance to be organized under the Department of Labor, the State to pay the administration expenses and the employer and employee to contribute equally to the premiums. Unfortunately, the most dangerous diseases, such as tuberculosis, cancer, etc. do not in their first stages incapacitate the laborer for work, with the result that the laborer continues until he is "sick" and forced to cease work, when it is too late to affect a cure, whereas, he might have been saved by securing the necessary medical and surgical treatment provided under such a system. The various charitable societies of the State are overburdened by the demands made on them for the care of families whose bread winners, through sickness, are unable to support them. The Health Insurance system would provide doctors and surgeons for the invalid and a sick benefit to care for the family, so that the laborer would be returned to his work at the earliest possible moment and the family would be cared for without being a burden on the community. Governor Edge, in his annual message, recommended such a system, and a Health Insurance bill will be introduced at the next session of the legislature. The various charitable agencies should, therefore, examine the provisions of the proposed act carefully, and assist in its passage, as it will, without doubt, relieve them of a very great burden.

The other problem is how to handle our delinquent children. Many of us who have watched the operation of the juvenile courts have been forced to the conclusion that the fundamental principle of the Juvenile Court system is not sound. It is a vast improvement over the old system, but it does not solve the question because it presumes that the child is the problem and deals with the child alone, whereas the child's family is the real question which demands a solution, so that justice can be done the child. New Jersey has solved the problem of the care of the dependent child and these children when they come of age are taking their places in this community as useful law-abiding citizens and the same result can be accomplished with the majority of the delinquent children, if an equally efficient system is devised, but it cannot

be done through a court whose main duty is to place children in institutions. The question before a juvenile court, as constituted at present, is, what shall be done with the child? Whereas, the real question should be, why did this child err and how can his parents be forced to care for him and his brothers and sisters so that they may become useful members of the community?

The Juvenile Courts have been founded as courts of law and law is hard, inflexible. Would it not be better to found them on the principles of equity, the underlying principle of which is justice? A law court is created to punish offenders, an equity court to see that the rights of litigants are protected. Only those who have offended against the law can be brought before a law court to be punished, whereas, in an equity court all those who are in any way connected with the matter in question can be brought before the court and the court in its decree can protect the rights of all parties and enforce its decree by imprisonment if they fail to abide by the order of the court. We would, therefore, be able to handle the case as a family matter if the Juvenile Courts should operate under the rules and powers of equity rather than law. The Juvenile Courts, of the counties of the State have some such powers, but the distance to the county seat and the expense of getting there is so great that they are not able to handle the situation, as in some parts of the State it will take a day and a half to go to the county seat, attend court and return home. We must, therefore, have a court that can travel around the county and sit in the various communities so that the court can be reached by the people of the county who are not able to pay the expense of a trip to the county seat.

The court must of necessity have jurisdiction over the parents, therefore, it would be well to change the name of the court and call it by some such name as the "Family Tribunal."

The object of the court should be the prevention of the breaking of the family ties, so, the court should have full jurisdiction over all cases that arise for non-support or disputes of parents, or the failure of either parent to do his or

her full parental duty. The "Family Tribunal" would therefore consist of, say, six judges, appointed by the Governor, with the consent of the Senate. Their jurisdiction should cover all the State. The Presiding judge should arrange the circuits for the judges and the circuits should be so arranged as to cover the various communities in the different counties. The judges should have jurisdiction in all cases affecting the children or the care of children and the Domestic Relation. The rules, practice and proceedings should follow, as far as possible, those of equity rather than law.

It was the duty of the Tribunes, in the old days, to preserve peace and harmony in the clan, and that is exactly what should be accomplished in the families that come before this court. Can there be any nobler duty imposed on a court than to protect the children of the State and secure for them a proper home life?

CHAIRMAN: We now have the pleasure of listening to Mr. Ogden H. Hammond, Acting Chairman of the State Board of Charities and Correction, who will present the speaker of the evening.

MR HAMMOND: Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: It gives me great pleasure to present to you tonight one who needs no introduction. Those in this country who in all probability may not have had a chance to fight on the battle line in France are just beginning to realize that their services may be needed here almost as much as over there. I refer to the problem of reconstruction after the War. The preliminary work must be done now. We must be prepared to fight, to build up that which will be torn down, to fight our battles over here against disease, against crime, against insanity. One of the foremost men representing social work, one who has given the finest and best of his capabilities in American life is the Hon. William Howard Taft (cheers) our beloved Ex-President, whom I now have the honor to present to you.

(Applause.)

THE GOAL IN SOCIAL WORK AND WHY AMERICA IS AT WAR

HON. WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

Ladies and Gentlemen of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections: I feel as if I were here under false pretenses. I thank the Chairman for his very kindly introduction, but I am not conscious of having deserved a word of it. I, of course, in official life, have had to do with charities and fundamentals of an official character and its correction. I am afraid that in certain respects I might be considered a re-actionary if I told you exactly what I think on some of these issues. I remember reading with great interest the life of Edward Livingston. Edward Livingston, after he went to Louisiana, wrote a criminal code that gave him a reputation, I think, greater than that of any jurist of the United States. He was fifty years ahead of his time in the character of measures that he produced for the State of Louisiana in dealing with criminals. His code covered not only the definition of crime and the procedure in punishing, but it covered a prison system which, while in certain respects seems now to have been chimerical, on the whole lay the basis for the theories and practice of our present system. The object of punishment, of criminal laws, is first of all to prevent crime. Of course, the great improvement to be made is that while we keep in mind clearly the deterrent effect of the law in the interests of society, in giving an opportunity to the one who is to be punished of reforming and offering him the inducement to reform so that he may be returned to society as a good citizen. These measures for reform and correction must go on even in the face of our War, because engaged on the other side will never be more than ten millions of our people, and we are one hundred and ten millions. Everything must go on with us in a more or less normal way, and while many of our energies are absorbed in meeting the necessity

that war presents, still such objects as those which this Society has must be pursued and must not be allowed to drop even in the crisis which our nation is facing. Not only that, but as the gentleman who introduced me so kindly said, "the war is bound to increase the field of work which such a society as this will have to undertake. Problems have got to be met growing out of the war. Those who remember the Civil War can appreciate this fact. A nation cannot go through the upheaval that we are bound to have in society due to the excesses of the war without having new problems in respect to the saving of those who are otherwise likely to go down into demoralization.

Now, I did not come here to discuss in any technical way, or any way at all, this subject, because I have not the information that would justify me in standing before you and talking on it, except to extend to you a profound sympathy in your work and the heartiest appreciation of its value.

I came here tonight to talk about the other subject that I am talking about these days—a subject which is so absorbing that it is difficult for one to think about anything else—and that is the war which we are now facing. We are getting closer and closer to it—we are looking down the cannon's mouth of the German, we are looking down in the gun-barrel of his machine gun and his rifles. This drive is on—it is brought home to us—how much our Allies have done for us in keeping the Germans away from us, and it is a little difficult to escape! If the Germans were to drive through there would be little between us and our enemies. There would be our Navy and the English Navies which would save us in our skins and homes, but we would then have presented the question—not "shall we fight," but "where are we going to fight," as we must fight this war through to victory! Now, it helps me, and I hope it will help you—to recite in a summary way, as you recite a creed—the facts which carried us into this war, to show that we are right in every respect, in every scintilla—that we have nothing to apologize for or explain in fighting this war out with Germany.

We have no lust for power, no lust for territory, we were

driven into the war against our will, and being in the war, now we find the cost—a world cost greater than we appreciated when the war began in Europe. A long time ago, before I was exposed to public life, I used to be a lawyer. I was trained to state the facts in logical sequences, to state principles of law and to present them. That is what I want to do tonight, if I can return to the innocence of that period.

When this war began, we all rejoiced at the proclamation of neutrality made by the President, and we said “we will comply,” and we have. But there are whispering Pro-Germans who suggest that we were unneutral. That isn’t true. They say we were unneutral because we allowed our manufacturers to sell ammunition and war supplies to the Allies. We did so. We did so in accord with an established rule of international law. Germany herself had applied that rule; she had practised it against us in the Spanish War, she practised it against Europe in the Boer War. Then this whispering Pro-German suggests that we were not neutral in dealing with her. That also is not true. We sold to Germany as long as she would buy. The trouble was that under that rule, goods sold and carried on the high seas in neutral vessels are subject to search, then they are seized. When she sent her commercial submarine here she brought dyes and sold them, and then she loaded her submarine with rubber, aluminum and copper, in order that she might use those articles in electrical devices for her instruments of war. So that in every respect we dealt with her just as we did with her enemies. But then there were others who said that though this was the rule of war we should abrogate it by Act of Congress—that it was not right that we should allow our merchants and manufacturers to make arms and sell them to be used to kill people with whom we were not at war. That has a plausible sound but lacks foresight. We are a peace-loving nation. Our pleasure is always peace, as we look at it. We are never ready for war and would never like to be. There may be some Congressmen who anticipating war and wishing preparation have been instrumental in securing appropriations for what they think will be required to carry it out. When they go back to their districts and take

their places among men who don't believe in such and such a measure—those gentlemen go back to Congress and are not likely to vote for the appropriations, and so it is in all our war preparations, we are unprepared simply because our people are a peace-loving people and cannot anticipate war before it comes. So, being that kind of a people, it is of the highest importance to us, in order to meet a war of aggression by a nation that makes war its god, that we should keep every source of preparation open. A nation like Germany that has kept up preparation for fifty years for this war does not need neutral sources particularly, but we who have to get ready for war when war is declared must look about and keep open as many sources as possible. Therefore, our President and Congress would have been recreant to their trusts if they had abolished that law which enables us now in the hustle in which we are engaged to buy where we can. While our course as a neutral is clear, Germany's course toward us as a neutral cannot be too strongly condemned. In May, 1915, a great English commercial liner, six or eight hundred feet long, sixty or eighty feet beam, with 3,000 persons in her ship's company, sailed from New York for Liverpool. Off the Irish Coast, by direction of the German government, a submarine sent a torpedo into her vitals and carried down of that 3,000 persons 1,200 to their death. Of that 1,200, 114 were American citizens, men, women and children, babes in arms. We protested. Germany answered that the vessel was armed. That was a lie. In all the warehouses that Germany has for the storing of her material and instruments the biggest one is the one in which she stores her war lies.

It served to continue the correspondence for a year, and during that year she sank a number of American vessels and caused the death of a number of American citizens on those vessels, but for each one she had some kind of an explanation. Finally, at the end of the year she sank the *Sussex*, another English vessel with a large ship's company, among whom were Americans, and then we said, "If you do this again, if you continue this kind of warfare we will sever our relations," and she said, "we will discontinue until further notice." Then

she went to work making submarines, and when she had made enough as she supposed to carry out her purposes, on the 31st of January, 1917, notified us and the world that thereafter any vessel, commercial or otherwise, neutral or otherwise, that entered a zone 900 miles north and south and 300 miles east and west from England she would sink without warning. Then we severed our relations as we said we would, and we returned to the bosom of the Emperor, that sneak and spy, Count Johann Von Bernstoff, and after the Emperor had embraced him, he sent him to the Turks—where he belonged.

Her answer to our severing relations, in dismissing Bernstoff, was to sink four American vessels which probably never had received notice of change in her policy, and thereby sank and drowned thirty American sailors, making a total of two hundred American lives as a result of this murderous policy.

Now, the first question I wish to raise and discuss is whether there was any other course for us to pursue than the one we did, namely, to declare that war existed.

That depends upon what the rights of our citizens were and what our duty was in the mitigation of those rights. When Germany sent a torpedo into a vessel on the high seas she knew that a part of the company at least would be drowned, sinking the vessel without warning. Now she therefore deliberately killed those who were drowned. Had she a right to do it? The question of rights is settled by international law, and in the event of the capture of commercial vessels at sea that law is very definite, because it has been decided in prize cases for one hundred years by Prussian, English and American courts, and it is just as definite as the law of promissory notes or real estate in this country. It is simple for our purpose. A nation at war may, if its war vessel seizes a commercial vessel of its enemy and cargo on the high seas—may do one of two things—it may take the vessel and cargo into court and have its prize adjudged and sold, the money distributed among the crew and officers, or it may sink the vessel as it finds it and sink the cargo, in order to weaken its enemy. It may do the same thing, perhaps, with neutral vessels following the laws of war, but the law for one hundred

years has always recognized that before the vessel is sunk the ship's company all of them must be put in a place of complete safety before the sinking takes place. Admiral Semmes of the Confederate Navy prided himself on the fact that not one single human life of the ships' companies were lost on the vessels seized, and if he found he could not put the crew and officers in a safe place because he didn't have room he released the vessel and let them go. Therefore, when Germany sank these vessels and deliberately sent a number of the ship company to the bottom, she killed those persons without right. Now, when one kills another without right, it is murder, whether it is done by individuals or a nation, therefore our case against Germany is that she killed two hundred of our citizens without right, she murdered them; she announced to us her purpose to murder all those who might enter the zone which she had fenced off on the high seas. Oh, but it is said that it is the people who went into the zone who are responsible, that they knew their danger and they deliberately went into it, therefore they are to blame and not Germany! Well, let us take a perfectly analogous case. Suppose John Smith sends word to John Jones in the city of Newark, "Jones, if you come down into the street in front of your house I will kill you," and Jones, being a high-spirited citizen and knowing his rights, and having business in the street comes down into the street and is killed. Then when Smith is brought into court he makes the plea—if he can get a lawyer in New Jersey to make the plea—that he is not guilty, because Jones is the cause of his own death; he had notice he would be killed if he came into the street, hence he was guilty of contributory negligence. That is the plea.

There is one other question, that is that they don't recognize international law. They admit the violation. Now, the law was there, but they relied on the rule of retaliation. Against whom? England, because England had been violating international laws, and therefore they were entitled to retaliate. That is worse than the other. John Smith shoots John Jones because he wants to get even with John Robinson. He killed our citizens in order to retaliate against England. It

reminds me of a letter Mr. Roosevelt read to us in Cabinet when he was President. He was the Colonel of the Rough Riders, you know. He had some boys who were getting into trouble now and then and he received a letter from one who had been put in jail. This letter read: "Dear Colonel, I am in trouble again, as you see by this. This time it isn't my fault. I am in here for shooting a lady in the eye, but I wasn't shooting at her, I was shooting at my wife." Germany says she wasn't shooting at us, she was shooting at England, but she hit us. But Senator LaFollette says, "It does no harm to abuse your opponent in an argument, no matter how poor an opinion you have of him." He says that these rights existed but that they were technical. Now, isn't it too bad that a Senator in Congress, sworn to uphold the Constitution of the United States, should characterize the murderous procedure of Germany as technical? Suppose this was Venezuela, you know what would have happened. The President would have said, "Here (put in diplomatic language), this murder has got to stop and you have got to make reparation as far as it can be made to the relatives of the victims; you have got to give security that this murdering will not occur again, and you have got to apologize to this Nation." And every man in the country, and Senator LaFollette and conscientious objectors would have said "well done." Now, what is the difference in that case and this? There isn't any. The difference is that Germany is the greatest military power in the world and Venezuela is not! Germany is a country controversy with whom, means world power. We are therefore not in favor of yielding the rights of our citizens against any country if it is only big enough so we can lick her with one hand, but if it is Germany and a power that is strong, then we will waive those rights. Norway has lost by this method 1,000 sailors. She has protested and that is all. Why hasn't she declared war? Because she believes that Germany would wipe her out if she declared war, because she is afraid of Germany. Now, what category do we wish to be put in as a nation? That we are afraid of any nation on earth when that nation is murdering our citizens? Is that in accord with the

principles of the Revolutionary or the Civil War? How does it appeal to you as red-blooded men and women? Is that the duty of the Government? What is a Government? A Government is a corporation created for our benefit, by us. We support it, pay taxes, give it service, military and civil; we aid its laws. What do we get for it? Protection of our rights as against another, protection of our rights by foreign nations. If we don't protect those rights as a government then we had better go out of the Government business. The Constitution, as interpreted by the Supreme Court, says that we must protect the rights of our citizens at home and abroad, on the high seas. A citizen on the high seas and under the flag of the United States is as much within the protection of the United States as if he stood on the shore of New Jersey.

We did not go into this war because we wished it, but because we were forced into it by the acts of Germany; she left us no other course. President Wilson was attacked and criticized by my own party because he did not think, as that party thought, soon enough. Now, we are neither Republicans or Democrats, we are Americans! The effort that was made, of willingness even to condone the murders of the victims of the Lusitania in order that Germany might be made to see the injustice she was doing, and the murderous policy she was pursuing, ought to convince every one, pacifist or otherwise, that we are in this war because duty requires it and not because we wished war. As I said before, we have no lust of territory, no lust of power—simply from a sense of duty. There is an Irish saying "It's better to be quarreling than to be lonesome." That isn't our spirit. We went into war with the same spirit, same sense of duty that the Puritans went into war. It is a holy war we are fighting. So we are in the war and now that is the case. We find the cause we are fighting far wider than the question at first seemed. It is for the maintenance of the right of the world. Here are a lot of democracies—England, France, Italy, Belgium and the United States on the West front, and some whispering pro-German suggests that Belgium, Italy and England are ruled by Kings and so they are not democracies. If the people rule, then the

question of kings is only a question of days. The Kings of Italy, Belgium and England haven't any more to do with the real policy of those countries than the Ex-President of the United States. (Applause—I wanted to give you an extreme case.) On the other hand, who is it whom we are fighting? The German people led by William of Hohenzollern and the Prussian military regime. Don't lets be blind. Its the German people and the military regime of Prussia. Oh, yes, I forgot there are some other little additions, Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria, and Turkey—but our foe is the German people led by William, and the Prussian military regime, and we want to understand what this is, what it means. We don't. Until we trace the history of the German people and find out the psychological condition that explains their present attitude toward the world. With your permission I am going to trace that history in a summary way.

Early in the Nineteenth Century Germany was divided into twenty-eight different states—Austria-Hungary and Prussia and twenty-six other states, led by little divine righters, dukelets and kinglets and little despots. Everybody recognized that it had to be divided. In 1848 the liberty-loving Germans of force and courage revolted in all those states. At first it seemed as if they were about to succeed, and then they failed, and they left the country, some because they wanted to and some because they had to, and they came to this land of freedom to breathe in liberty. Led by a number of strong, forceful liberty-loving men, they settled in this country, all over the country. They made a fine body of citizens and when the war came on, dreading slavery as they did, they enlisted in the Civil War. Since that time others have come over and they have a great line of descendants. So they have continued to make an important body of our citizenship. Unfortunately, for three years we were neutral, and during that time many of these citizens of German origin forgot what drove their ancestors over here and yielded to the natural pride they had in the military advancement of their brethren on the other side. They believed in them when they said this was a war of aggression against Germany, and they sympathized. Then

came the declaration of war against Germany. A conflict of emotions arose, but a great body of these citizens of German origin recognized their allegiance to the United States and ever since the war have contributed to the patriotism. There are some, doubtless few, who failed to respond to that gratitude that welcomed them here and the opportunities which they have taken advantage of, and they sympathize with the other side. Now if that sympathy manifests itself in getting aid, obtaining information, poisoning food of our soldiers or tampering with our munitions, there is only one thing this country can do in self-defense. It must put such citizens up before a firing squad—after a judicial trial, and end their citizenship in any country. For God's sake, don't let's follow the Germans in their brutality. It is so easy to fall into that error. If you once let mob violence go you never know what will happen. We pride ourselves on decency between us, and let's maintain our right to have that pride by bringing these people before the court and punishing them instead of being bullies. I don't believe this county needs talking to in this way, but I never get any applause for that statement. I have tried it in Oklahoma and elsewhere—nevertheless it is true.

Now to go back. The brethren of these Germans that came over, after having fought the despots on the other side, were not exposed to the environment of those who came here to breathe the air of freedom. They continued under these little kinglets and dukelets, and finally came under the influence of Bismarck, who was the Premier of Russia in 1862. He was a divine-righter kinglet. He said, "I will make Germany solid—not by constitutional methods, but by blood and iron," and he proceeded to do so. He had the people of Prussia turned into the army and gave it army equipment, and by development and attention made it the best instrument of war in Europe, and then turned his attention to using it. Then he planned three wars. I call your attention to these three wars. Germany did not declare one of them. She was ready, she planned the war, but they were all wars of aggression against her. I want to invite your attention to that.

because it is important in considering the evidence as to how this present war was a war of aggression against Germany.

They built a great street along which they put monuments telling what great people the German people were. Now, this turned their heads. It was a wonderful series of military victories. They said, "This shows us to be superior men." They taught it in the schools that the Germans were superior, greater than any other people and that the greatest object of the State was military power. That was filtrated into the minds of the children in the public schools. Then they said, "Being super-men, having adopted this state of efficiency in the military art, we will pursue it in all fields of activity, and they did. They applied science to agriculture, manufacture, business, education. They called it a system of thorough efficiency or "Kultur." The result of it in the decades that followed was that it accumulated wealth in Germany as it never had been accumulated before. It gave them, in a way, a preponderancy in all the departments of science, in business, and that added to the size of their head and led them to the conclusion that they had already reached that they were super-men and they said to themselves "This is God's work." That is an easy mistake to make, where a man has had a succession of victories, that God has gone into partnership with him. That is just what has happened to the Germans. They said "This Kultur is necessary for the spread of God's civilization, it is the function of the German state to make the Kulture of the world." That system rests on military power, on military force, and the Kulture must thus be spread." Germany's system is the agency of God, and the despot is the Kaiser. Now, the German mind loves logic, the German is a good logician. He is not so good in selecting premises. The German, relying on logic and not depending so much on his premises, finding his conclusion different from the facts, reaches the conclusion that this was much the worse for the facts. They tell a story that it seems to me is quite apt in this connection. An old German went out to the gold fields of California in '49. You know the ways of getting out there were very difficult and only a few went. After he had been

there he met an American whom he had last seen in New York, and he was curious to know how he came out. He said, "You have come the plains across?" He said "No." Then, "You have come the mountains over?" He said "No." Then he said, "You must have come the Straits of Magellan through." He said "No." Then the German took off his glasses, put them on again and laughing said, "Then you must have been seasick coming the Horn around." He said "No." The German started at the answer, looked at him first through his glasses then lifted them, looked at him again and said "Well, then you have not arrived." That illustrates what I mean. Taking the premises that the German system is the agency of God in reaching its destiny of spreading Kultur the world around by force, he sticks to the easiest conclusion that in that business, being on God's business the State can do no wrong. The considerations of decency, humanity, morality and the obligation of treaties as applied between individuals have no application to the progress of the State toward that destiny, and the consequence is that they have abolished international morality, there is no rule of morality between nations, nothing that should restrain nations from seeking to pursue its object, especially when it is God's object, as they say. That is a horrible philosophy. It is a philosophy that would lead to the destruction of the world, that "might makes right" and there is no right except that which is founded on force.

Now, you ask confirmation of that. You can find it in the libraries of Berlin. You will find it in every military writer. We knew it before the war. Why didn't we attribute it to the German people? Possibly we assumed that these writers were cranks. We have cranks among us but we wouldn't like to be held responsible for the statement of cranks that we know, and we have treated Germany the same way. Their association with God has become a conviction. The Kaiser says "Forward with God." He says "God is with us." What does that mean? It means that no matter what we do as long as our destiny is the spread of Kultur for God's civilization, God is with us.

Now, he wouldn't use those expressions unless he knew they went home to the minds and thoughts of the German people. It has also been carried into the pulpit. You find sermons preaching it, find it in prayers, out of their own mouths, "Oh, thou who presidest in the heavens, high above the cherubim and the serephim and the Zeppelins." Now, that is irreverent with you. Not so to the German, because the Zeppelins are spreading Kultur with its explosives, destroying the school children of England, for military purposes, and that is God's purpose. It is a horrible philosophy. If you want further confirmation, look at the way they have treated the Armenians. By this murderous policy they have sent to their death 14,000 innocent men, women and children. They violated the neutrality of Belgium, to which their faith was pledged sixty years, not only to observe that neutrality but protect it. A few years before the war they built and strengthened railroads up to the borders of Belgium. They built them up because they intended to strike some day and they intended to strike France through Belgium. When the war came on they struck through Belgium and their Chancellor said to the English Embassy who objected, "Why should we pay attention to a treaty, that is nothing but a scrap of paper," and what did they do in Belgium. Did they treat them with decency, those poor innocent people? No, they set aside a district and in that district they murdered by military authority, standing up against a wall and firing at the leading men in each district, leaving their dead bodies to testify to the rest of the Belgians what would result if they did not submit.

When they had accomplished by this method their purpose of securing complete submission of the Belgian people, they took the man, the brother, father and son from a family, carried them into Germany, enslaved them, contrary to every rule of international law. They violated the rights of war in so many cases, sending cruisers to the east coast of England and bombarding undefended towns, destroying old men and women and children. Oh, the desecration they have imposed

on the parts of France and parts of Belgium that have had to be given up. It is terrible to think of their leaving helmets and other instruments likely to attract children and placed so that when they went to pick up a helmet it blew up a mine and destroyed the children and families that had come back to their own home. It is horrible, you cannot explain except on the theory I have been attempting to sustain, by a psychological condition in which they have made the Devil their god and they don't know it. The Hague treaties, where they consented to the amelioration of war are not binding to them. This treaty gives the standards of decency in fighting war, and one of those rules was that there should be no poisonous gases. Another that explosives from Zeppelins should not be dropped on undefended towns. I could go on and detail atrocities without number of which the Germans have been guilty because they believe that anything is justified in winning victory, but there is one thing I want to speak of before I leave this part of the subject, that is their treatment of the Armenians. They directed the deportation of 1,800,000 Armenians, by their Army officer, by German authority. This was known to Germany—she might have stopped it by the turn of her hand. This is what they did: With that army they did deport 1,800,000; 600,000 of them escaped into Russia because they knew what was coming; 600,000 of them were massacred by rifle, by bayonet and by driving them over precipices, deep running rivers, and 600,000 they finally deported into the desert of Syria, making the roll about one million.

It is their determined purpose to rule the world by force for the spread of this Kultur. Such a nation and family of nations is as dangerous as a mad dog is in a domestic family. We are at war with them. What is there for us to do? The trouble with the German people, led by William of Hohenzollern and this Prussian Regime is in their heads. "Prussian military regime," that is a long expression and I don't like to use it. Doctor Van Dyke has termed it the Potts-dam-gang, since the council of war met in the King's Palace at Pottsdam just after the murder of the Crown Prince.

What we are fighting is the German people, led by William of Hohenzollern, the head of the military dynasty—might makes right—force is all the rule of morality there is, and his Potts-dam-gang. How are we going to remedy it? We cannot remedy it except in one way and that is by victory over William of Hohenzollern, Hindenburg and Ludendorff, the Potts-dam-gang, leading the German people. The trouble with them is in their heads, and they need a surgical operation, and if we gain a victory over them, and if we sit upon William of Hohenzollern and the Potts-dam-gang, then the scales will fall from the eyes of the German people. No military dynasty can survive; being God's, this very victory of God will eradicate its existence. Therefore, that is our purpose in this war, otherwise, my friends, what is the use of living in this world! If we don't have a victory over them, with the aid of our noble Allies, then we have before us this future, that is if we make an inconclusive peace—we will become subservient to the German dynasty, to the German or military system, and must make our nation an armed country, ready to resist them when they think the time has arrived. Is that what we want to do? Do we wish to yield our independence to Germany or wish to make Germany our model and make ourselves a military dynasty? Our only course is to end that dynasty and make a peace and get the German people's minds free of dynasty so that they may become commendable members of the family of nations, and then by general arrangements see to it that hereafter peace may be permanent and that the manifests of any nation shall not involve us in such a vortex of murder and horror as this war. There is a great deal of difficulty in doing this. There is difficulty first, in our going ahead to make our plans broad enough to make victory certain; second, is to pledge ourselves not to stop in this work until we do accomplish the only purpose. Why do we hold these patriotic meetings? We advance the same criticism, use the same expressions, why? It is on the same principle that we meet in churches to recite our creeds; it is to arouse our soul to a sense of duty, our relation to God, and these patriotic meetings are to rouse our sense of the relation to the world,

impress upon us the responsibility that we should have as individuals in discharging our duty and purpose that is laid before us.

Therefore, what I would like emphasized in every patriotic meeting and recited is a creed to which we will stand, because when we meet defeat and the discouraging appeal, when it seems better to give up because we have lost so many, when we go down into the Valley of the shadow of death, our terrors are taken from us, then we shall have the satisfaction that we did not give up our purpose and make any kind of a peace. The first declaration of this creed should be that we have failed to live up to our duty to God if we allow this war in which so many millions have been sacrificed to go without accomplishing something in the advance of civilization, so that it shall not have the result of being a mere prelude to another war.

Again, I believe that it is a violation of our duty, to our country and to the world and to God to make any treaty with William Hohenzollern and his Potts-dam-gang, (applause) because such a treaty will not insure the peace of the world; a treaty that is nothing but a scrap of paper is not something that we can make the end and object of this war.

Then I believe that this country should make itself ready so that all of its man power and all of its resources shall be organized within two or three years to send abroad an army of from five to ten millions of men, so that with our ships constructed and our army trained, when we land our army on the shores of France it means the end of the war, the end of the Hohenzollern dynasty, the permanent peace of the world.

BENEDICTION—Rev. Pleasant Hunter, D. D., Newark.

May the Grace of our Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, the Love of God the Father, the support of the Holy Spirit be ours forever. Amen.

Monday Morning, April 22, 1918

FAMILY WELFARE

Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Newark, Chairman

Those of you who live in Newark and would like to know something about the things we are doing will be welcomed at our headquarters, 36 Clinton Street, and we would be very glad, indeed, if we could induce you to give us your service. Those of you who live outside of Newark may find here a very good Home Service section to which we welcome you. With Mr. Wilson here to assist I do hope that this morning's meeting will create a real desire for service in the Home Service work. I am very glad to present to you Mr. Wilson.

HOME SERVICE IN CIVILIAN RELIEF

**A. M. Wilson, Director, Civilian Relief, Atlantic Division,
American Red Cross**

Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I came into the Red Cross to organize the Home Service in the care of soldiers' families. There were a few Home Service sections in the State at that time in Newark, New York and half a dozen other places. I read the Manual of Home Service which had been published and, with a few directions I received from it, started out to organize these sections without any more idea than one could get from that as to what the problem was. About the third day I was out a real problem came to the office. One of your Senators from New Jersey had sent to the National Headquarters a problem. One poor woman had given her only son to the war, who had a little poultry farm in the northern part of New Jersey, and she needed him back or some help. He had enlisted about the first week with Admiral Sims but his pay hadn't come through. She had been selling off her chickens to meet the expenses until she had nearly depleted her capital stock. Letters from the boy

were not cheerful. He had injured his eyesight—was in the hospital for a month or more. He had tried to get the boy discharged, but Secretary Daniels was not discharging boys from the Navy. He sent her to the Red Cross for help. The Red Cross was not organized in her community to meet a problem like that, was organized to send equipment to hospitals, soldiers, and to raise money for France, but not organized locally for this kind of problem. We had to send somebody out to visit the woman and work out a plan by which the woman could be taken care of. We gave her enough to buy back her chickens as she is happy and everything is in good shape. We had to organize for home service in every little community in the Atlantic Division. It did not do to organize in three large cities of these states. City after city had organized to do this before the Red Cross had gotten into the field. When the soldiers were sent to the Mexican Border independent committees were appointed by Mayors. They had to do it in Canada because the Red Cross is not permitted by its charter to engage in civilian relief work. The relief problem itself was a very big one in Canada. Practically every woman with one child would have to have a certain amount in addition to the Government grant in order to live, if she did not have an independent income. They are spending in Canada \$1,000,000 a month, supplementing the Government allowances to the families.

In the United States a woman, say, with two children, would get \$15 from the man, \$32.50 from the Government, so she is sure of an income of \$45.50 a month. With additional children will be given additional money, at the rate of \$5 each, so that purely fundamental needs are fairly adequately met by the Government's action. That would be true if \$45.50 would support a woman and two children under all conditions in the country—it would certainly in rural communities much better than in the city of Newark, or Jersey City or Trenton. It would be easier if every family met the requirements of the law, but there are families with boys who have gone into service whose mothers would get only \$10 or \$15, but they are foster-mothers. Every foster-mother cannot come within

the provisions of the law. An elder sister who may have brought them up and is now dependent on the boy in service would only get \$8 from the Government instead of \$15, if a wife. Somebody must needs step in and meet that situation. There are innumerable situations where relief from outside of the Government sources are necessary.

In the Atlantic Division the Red Cross covers every inch of territory in the three states. The responsibility is placed definitely upon the Chapter to care for every family within its jurisdiction, and they are meeting it. Our chapters are all organized for home service and operating under directions received from Washington, which is enforced by direction from the Division, so we can safely say that any family in need of any assistance whatsoever in this Atlantic Division has some place to which it can turn, someone who is responsible to us to meet their need.

On the financial side, we haven't a general fund placed and a common treasury in which the home worker can reach for funds for relief of families. It was thought better here to organize under the basis of Chapter responsibility in every field of activity. They fix the responsibility on the Chapter to relieve soldiers' families. There is an order from headquarters at Washington that if a Chapter hasn't funds to do the dressings, hospital supplies and those needs the Red Cross is committed to, and to relieve the families, the first responsibility is to relieve families in that district and assume that the several supplies will be furnished by other Chapters. No one else can come in to meet the local problems.

We have changed the name of this committee from Civilian Relief to the Home Service Relief. We realized that the Government would have something other than relief to offer primarily to soldiers' families, so we called our committees Home Service Sections. Only in a small proportion of the families have relief problems. In the State of New Jersey in the month of February, we cared for 1872 families. We gave relief at that time to the extent of \$7,521.54. Some funds were raised independently of the Red Cross, so I can safely say that about \$10,000 in relief to soldiers' families was

advanced in the month of February to 1,800 families. A large number of these families came to us for other needs than relief—for advice and information. We established an information service, published a booklet of 120 pages, giving information of the Army and Navy, so that the Home Service section is the repository locally of the most complete information that is obtainable by men in service such as their families might want to know. Twenty-four boys from different towns were captured by the Germans. It is some reassurance to the parents and wives of those boys to know that right here in Washington or Toronto is someone with information as to how those boys can be communicated with. We keep that information up to date so far as we can get it. Civil rights of the soldier is now protected by Federal legislation so it will relieve him of any worry about affairs that were left behind that would get him into court. An efficient Legal Committee was appointed in connection with our own work, supplying expert legal advice. Families come to us for advice and information about delayed allowance, allotments, or failure to receive them.

Many are coming to us through the Service organizations in cantonments. We have in each cantonment, wherever it may be, a Red Cross representative. In all the hospitals, it renders service to the sick soldiers. Not only do we have them at camp but just lately we sent twenty-five such men to France to be with the units there to serve the soldiers in this way, so that men in France may be perfectly free from worry. Worried men make very poor soldiers, so they are afforded every facility for forwarding information to someone at home, relieving them of the responsibility at once.

Many persons far removed from where skilled social work is known have, by reading the literature and trying it out, been able to do the work in a very intelligent way. We have four supervisors in every vicinity, telling the Chapters how to go about their work, giving eight or ten lectures and supervising every month or six weeks, thus making them more fit for the job they have undertaken. We ask the Chapter to pay \$50 for a course of ten lectures, they in turn charge the

people who take it and are reimbursed by individuals who profit by the service. We hope to operate from thirty to forty such courses this summer.

The field of Home Service there are also other problems when the war is over and when the wounded men are returned. This may call for a readjustment of our program but will require the best skilled workers we can get for the State.

THE CHAIRMAN: Just here I want to emphasize the fact that Home Service is not charity. America does not send her men to the army and treat their families with charity. We want it distinctly understood that the Home Service work is service, because these men have gone and must have somebody to take care of things while they are away. That does not mean, however, that when a man is discharged or for any other reason he is returned from the Army that his family is still in need of help and assistance. In fact, the Home Service, because of his discharge, is no longer able to care for his needs. The Home Service is then justified in turning that case over to the Local Bureau of Charities. Because the Home Service is not a charity does not say that it is not to co-operate in the very closest way with all existing organizations. In order to do Home Service work effectively we must take advantage of every organization and every resource for good in the community. I find in my work in Newark the smallest part of the Home Service work is the giving of funds. There are thousands of things that these people ought to have and have never had because they have not known the resources of the community, because they haven't perhaps felt the need of certain things which we can bring to their attention. I would like to tell you, if I had the time, what I believe should be Home Service work.

RELATION OF HOME SERVICE TO LOCAL CHARITIES

**Karl De Schweinitz, General Secretary, Philadelphia Society for
Organizing Charity**

A few weeks ago the Board of Directors of a certain social agency held a meeting to discuss ways and means of filling certain vacancies and they talked over every possible candidate and were about to decide on one or two of them when one of the business men of the Board said, "Now, don't let's be in a hurry in filling these vacancies, let's wait; there are a lot of men in France who are engaged in army activities who, when they come back from that work, will be anxious to go into just the sort of things we are doing; these men who are now helping in the work of carrying on the war are seeing a new vision, they are never going to be content again merely with their jobs, they are going to want to do something else." And so this particular Board decided to wait. I think we are so often concerned with what we are doing for the war that we altogether forget what the war is doing for us. The war has accelerated a great many of our feelings and ideas toward social works. I don't believe that any of us here in this room are going to fail to realize hereafter the importance of recreation in the lives of men and women, because of the activities of the War Camp Training Commission. Mr. Fosdock's activities have convinced thousands and thousands of people of the importance of recreation. Similarly, the politicians who used to say it was impossible to get rid of the booze are now learning through actual experience that the booze situation can be dealt with. Prohibition, which was considered to be visionary a few years ago is now an accepted fact in a great many States. I could cite many different ways in which the war is acting as a tremendous vehicle, so far as changing our ideas, accelerating the idea of the social work, which we already have. The same thing has been true in the work of the Red Cross. In ten or eleven months the Red Cross has given the

United States a conception of the art of helping people out of trouble that fifty years of work by regular social agencies had not been able to accomplish.

Home Service, it seems to me, has two responsibilities: first, the responsibility of caring for families of soldiers and sailors in the very best way possible; second, the responsibility of educating communities in which the Home Service sections are engaged to the best and highest type of social work imaginable. This is being done from the National headquarters and from Divisional headquarters by the use of literature, speakers, through Chautauquas and in many ways. After education there is no force that is so effective as the individual family problem. There is nothing like being concrete when you want to make a point, and the Home Service sections in various communities throughout the United States are having concrete illustrations from which they are able to educate the cities and towns in which they are working. I believe our psychologists tell us the only time we are in a world of our own is when we are asleep, assuming that the rest of our lives here are in a world of everybody, and our success in life depends upon how we can adapt ourselves to that world. That is the problem which the Home Service sections are constantly facing. Home Service depends largely for its success upon the character of the other social agencies in the city in which the Home Service is being carried on. Unless there is an active Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, unless there is an active Children's Aid Society, unless hospital work is being done well, unless the placing out of mothers and children is being done well properly, Home Service work is going to be adversely affected, so it is to the interest of the Red Cross in its work that there be a strong body of social workers wherever it is engaged. •

Now, because of the power of the war impulse, because of the readiness of people to do things when they are related to the conduct of the war, Home Service sections are doing things which the ordinary social agencies could never hope to accomplish. Home Service sections can, I believe, be of tremendous help in strengthening the conception of the various social

agencies in their city, in educating people to see that these organizations must do an increasingly better work. For instance, I know of a certain city in which the Red Cross is tied to a registration bureau. There had been in the city no way in which the various agencies and churches, could learn what each other organization was doing for the care of families. The Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children and the various societies of the churches did not know whether all or any of them were working for a family. Now the Red Cross came into that situation and found it would have to inquire of all these agencies. That situation continued for a number of months and now the Red Cross is starting a movement to establish a registration bureau, and when the war is over that will be a permanent contribution to the social work in that town.

The Red Cross, it seems to me, has a definite responsibility toward the other social work in the various cities and towns in the United States—to make that better, because it is going to re-act upon the work of the Red Cross. The different agencies that are working in a city can be educated to do better work, and of course the Red Cross can get the advantage of their counsel and advice through the establishment of Consolidation Committees. You can talk for hours about policies and questions of how to do things but all that talk is wasted until you pin the person to whom you are talking down to the facts of the particular situation.

The Red Cross Home Service manual describes in detail what a Consolidation Committee is. I need not dwell on that now. Obviously it should be composed of representative people in the town, who are representative of the social work and various philanthropies, and business interests, too. When we speak about having a representative committee don't make the mistake of inviting people to represent certain agencies. There is nothing so fatal to co-operation as having a group of people, one of whom is representing a certain agency; you are likely to find yourself in a situation where there is deadlock. Get representative people rather than people who represent. There is another thing to remember in this question

of co-operation between the agencies, and that is, no matter how we may be conscious of our organizations, the people whom we are helping don't understand them at all. They are all the same, we don't exist at all, and particularly if the worker is doing a good job the family does not think of the particular organization but of the individual. When it becomes necessary to transfer a family to a charitable agency, don't just transfer that family and think the job is done; get the social worker of the Home Service section to take an interest in that family. When they transfer a record from one organization to another they are not transferring the family. The same thing applies when the local charitable organization, for some reason or other, finds it necessary to transfer to the Home Service section. There ought to be the personal touch to introduce the new person to the family. In Philadelphia a family through a visitor or through an organization of its regular staff has had a real personal relationship then the relationship continues and the personal touch is continued, because it is more easy, once a real friendship has been developed to carry it on through the person who started it than a new person. But if the society has not had a personal contact, all the work is turned over to the Red Cross.

There is another point in the relationship between the Home Service section and the local charities, that is the question of workers. It is to the interest of the local charities that the local social agency of the Home Service sections have the benefit of just as strong a staff as possible, and it is the duty of the local societies to make just as much sacrifice as possible. On the other hand, it is to the interest of the Home Service section that there be just as strong a body of workers in town as possible. I do not believe that if the Red Cross were to have depended from the beginning of the war upon the social agencies of the United States for its workers they could have supplied enough workers. I do not believe the Red Cross could have been carried on, and as that work increases it is extremely desirable that we get new people into the Red Cross work, that we develop new candidates for our Home Service sections, and that is where the work of the

organizations is tremendously important. A great deal of the field work of the Home Service workers is being done through various social work organizations. It is perfectly obvious that an organization which is expanding with such tremendous rapidity is going to be greatly handicapped in doing the highest work just because of that expansion. Where that local social agency has been well conducted in the past is likely to be able to continue to forge ahead and develop a more extended work. Therefore, I think the contribution of the Home Service is the contribution of getting in line to use volunteers. It seems to me that it is quite appropriate that the training of Home Service workers should come from the social agencies where those social agencies are doing good work. I do not believe any training for Home Service will be affective unless that is followed up by a branch of training in the Home Service sections, because there are problems that are characteristic of Home Service which are not characteristic of the ordinary run of social work. The problem of supplying trained workers is likely to continue to be a difficult one, and there is, it seems to me, a heavy responsibility placed upon the local social agencies to see that the right sort of people begin the training. We are trying an experiment in Philadelphia, which if successful, may be an interesting step forward in the line of training. One hesitates to talk about anything before it is tried, but perhaps by talking we can get candidates for taking up this work. One thought is to train people for Executive Secretaryships in Home Service sections in the smaller towns, and for supervising jobs in the Home Service sections of the larger cities. This course is to last for a maximum of four months, to include work from nine to five every day, Saturday mornings devoted to discussion of case work, work with families, executive work, etc. Thus the workers will be given training for supervising volunteers: First, they will learn how to select tasks for volunteers, see how they do that work, that it is done properly; second, given experience in preparation for presenting problems to Consolidation Committees; third, given training in the work of interpretation.

Unless the Red Cross can get its work across into the minds of the lay public it is not going to have the greatest measure of success, and I know from what the Chairmen of the Home Service sections have said to me that that is one of the problems which they find tremendously difficult, getting the point of view of the Red Cross over to the public. We are going to try to give people some idea of the general basic principles underlying this work, first by writing reports to the people, and second of presenting Home Service and its methods, through talks to public collectors and the like. This course has just been suggested and being tried as an experiment in Philadelphia. It will open shortly. The plan is not to start a definite class at any one time but take people whenever they want to start, and so we might take somebody today and somebody next week and the week following. The students in the course would be active for four months from the time of their entrance. The course would conclude with the period spent in the Home Service section. If there are any here who want to take advantage of that training I shall be very glad to talk with them, or they may write me or Mr. Jones, who is the director of the Pennsylvania and Delaware Division of the Red Cross.

We are particularly interested in this work of training people, because your work—speaking now to the Home Service workers—is not just for the present. The Home Service work is going to be felt for years to come. It has been the experience that people who take up social work in great emergencies, in great distresses or in times of war, are either made or broken by the contact which they have with the people they work with. If the millions of soldiers and sailors are not properly helped and given the benefit of the careful and thoughtful work, we are going to have in the years following the war a tremendous volume of people who have not learned to help themselves who are willing to become dependents. I don't believe there is any time in the life of a family which is so critical as the time when somebody from the outside comes in to give that family advice and help. It seems to me we ought to give that family only the kind of advice and

help that we would give our own families and friends, and we should not leave any stone unturned that will prevent us from doing the very best we can.

Home Service sections are going to be a tremendous influence in the social work of the future and in the life of the United States in the years to come, because they are educating people throughout the country in new ideals. On the other hand, the work of the local social agencies in the future is going to depend very largely upon the character of the work which the local service work is doing for the families of soldiers and sailors.

DELEGATE:—Might I ask if you have any suggestion for bringing the social agencies of the town into co-operation with the Home Service sections?

MR. DE SCHWEINITZ: I think I should try to get them together perhaps by picking out some volunteer of that agency and getting him interested. If I wanted to enlist someone I would try to find some job for that one to do. I think when you once get a person doing something for you all other things will be added.

THE CHAIRMAN: It might be wise for me to tell you what we have been doing in Newark along that line. We felt that probably one of the greatest helps in training the volunteers for Home Service work was the correctional case committee. We invite a representative from one of the other social agencies or from one of the other social resources of our community to come and tell us what they are doing and then we ask questions and tie them up to us by making them promise that they will do everything in their power to co-operate with us, and we tell them we will co-operate with them. We have the finest co-operation I have ever known in my life right here in Newark.

Just before adjourning the meeting, I know it is the first session and you are all anxious to get away—I want to say one thing regarding Home Service work. The greatest asset that the United States will have in the future is its children. Get in touch with your school people and find out exactly what your child and children are doing. We have a system whereby

we send a list of the children that come under our care to the Superintendent of Schools each month, then the school authorities send a card to the teachers. The card asks for a report on the attendance, deportment and scholarship, and on the back of the card asks for anything of interest that the teacher could tell the Home Service section about the child. These cards are returned to us once a week through the courtesy of the Board of Education. Then at our meeting anything that needs to be brought to the attention of the whole group is read to the committee and the card is turned over to the volunteer to see what the trouble is—why Johnny Jones was away from school that week, etc. There is no safer and saner way of attempting to keep children from the Juvenile Courts than by keeping in friendly touch with them.

Monday Afternoon, April 22nd, 2 o'clock

THE DIFFICULTIES IN SOCIAL WORK

Mrs. Lewis Thompson, Red Bank, Chairman

Topic: MAINTAINING STANDARDS IN WAR TIMES

THE CHAIRMAN: We will now open the discussion on "The Difficulties in the Field of Social Service." My section is called "The Difficulties in Social Work." Being something of an optimist, I shall perhaps take the title of our discussion simply as a point of departure. As I came here today, I thought the most obvious and greatest obstacle in our social work would be the large number of social workers and leaders that had been called to wider fields, but as I look around, my optimism rebounds, for I see that, though many of you have doubtless taken heavier burdens to meet the war's needs, at the same time New Jersey has not lost the interest and guidance that you have always given and we are not to lose your leadership here, in the home State. It would be very unfortunate for any community to lose such an asset in its social work. I am going to pass very quickly over the few points that have occurred to me. Our difficulties are largely those that the other nations have passed through. We ought to escape at least some of the mistakes that they have made. In labor conditions and in the question of public health, there is no reason why we should repeat each step that has been taken abroad, and they have now developed conditions in England which would be very fortunate for us to reach in peace as well as in war.

A word about the schools. I feel particularly keenly about the schools, because in Monmouth County we have made so many attempts to keep the standards up. In England, as you probably know, the figures show that in the first year of the war the school attendance dropped 50% and the juvenile delinquency went up 50%. Perhaps you all know also that in this last year a one-third larger appropriation was passed

in Parliament for the purpose of public education than ever before in the history of England. We can study these facts and use them as arguments here.

I would also like to make a plea for the home. In the stress of today, we are being asked to do a great many things outside our homes. There is a connection I think between this point and the situation in the schools. Two or three of our workers in the county have said to me that they thought while the rather dis-located social conditions and school conditions were responsible for the increase of juvenile delinquency, they also thought a certain amount could be traced back into the home, and there is a sense of dis-location and a sense of lost vitality, less holding together, less grouping in the homes themselves, and that this is a point of danger to each and every one here in the community. We must stop, and think, and try to give our best thought to what our own home situation is, before we go out into the larger places. Certainly, if in England they are proving a person can do better industrial work on eight hours a day with recreation, good housing conditions, good food and sufficient rest, (developing what is after all a satisfactory back-ground for living) would not the same standard be held necessary for the home? We are probably not going to neglect the home from the sentimental side, but my plea is that it also should be considered in the modern, clear light of efficiency. The home field cannot be denied cultivation and enrichment and still bring forth the fruit and harvest that the Country needs.

Whatever is the measure of America, its achievement abroad, in war, and in the harder days of reconstruction, it will only mount up to what has been done in our own social institutions and not among the least of these do I place the home.

I now have the honor to introduce to you Mr. Hall who can so ably tell us of "The Difficulties in Financing Social Work in War Times."

DIFFICULTIES IN FINANCING

Fred S. Hall, Associate Director, Russell Sage Foundation

It is a great pleasure to speak to a New Jersey audience because my home is in New Jersey and I have been a social worker in New Jersey. A great many social workers, not only in New Jersey but elsewhere have been perplexed in placing the benefits that we recognize as coming from the war. I am going to confine myself to just one phase of the subject. What have been the benefits and what the injuries in this matter of social finance. First, as to the injuries. To the best of my observation they are practically negligible and they come as a surprise to most of us. I confess to have felt a considerable doubt in my own mind as to what the outcome would be when the war was opening. A friend of mine who represents a form of work which is progressive and which has been in need of more funds this year than ever before has mentioned that he made an attempt to find out in different states in the country what the result has been. I had the pleasure yesterday of reading through the letters received in reply to his question, from twenty-nine states. From twenty-five of those states there was not the slightest question but that they were as well off as they were before the war. The mere fact that it has been harder to raise money this last year must not be looked upon as an injury. Hard work in raising money is the breath of life in our work; it brings us out and gets our literature over to the community. Among these letters that I had the pleasure of reading yesterday afternoon were remarks by some of the writers—and four-fifths of the writers were not salaried directors but trustees, business men—a few had reasons why they accounted for success. They are not new methods. Every one of us have known of those methods. The one point is that in certain of those organizations those methods were new, they had been pushed to the necessity of doing organized work, then being well organized work. Why has there been no injury in these restrictions? It is because they have been willing to work harder. Second, they have been willing to improve their methods. Some of our financial methods are a disgrace. I

have been in touch with some social organizations and looked over their methods of work. The business methods that have been used in some of the large campaigns that have been so successful in the years past, this past ten months have realized what it means and the necessity of adopting such methods if we are going to do any comprehensive successful financing. But most important in accounting for this success lies in what we might call a psychological or perhaps a biological law expressed within us that giving begets giving so that giving is a habit. For the first time in the Century to which we belong there has been real down deep giving throughout our community. It is the enthusiasm, the deep feeling that has been aroused in our community, of the war cause, that has gotten people into the habit of giving. People that have never given before and other people who have given only to a small extent, given not at all to the extent of their resources, they have come to know what the joy of giving is, and so when we have approached them for larger gifts or for first time gifts, that habit of giving has been effective and we have been able to hold our own.

The war has brought us certain benefits. I refer to the absence of any serious injuries. These benefits are largely in this habit of giving which has been created and which will show itself far more in the future, in my judgment, that it is apparent today, for the war is going to be over and over right some time we hope, before a great many years, and when that time comes there are people all through our cities who have never given adequately to cause before who are ready now to give to us as they have never given, and we can expect to find new causes of social work which have been impossible to start. We will find the community ready to finance them, we will find the funds for those new problems and forms of work. It is one of the great benefits that has come from this war when the war is over to social work. But I want to speak chiefly on the lessons that have come to us in the line of social finance from the war. I will speak first of the effect that the war has had on that old law in the matter of social finance that it doesn't make much difference how you get your money

so long as you get it. "We simply need the money, we must get it." I wonder if it has occurred to you that there is a real fundamental psychological reason. We consecrated our boys, there was hardly a protest that amounted to anything that most insistent form of conscription. Now, would there have been any more protest if our government should have decided that it should conscript its loans, that each man on his income tax should state what his capital was, his savings, and a certain proportion of those savings should have been drawn out for a forced loan to the government? Conscript capital in the form of a loan. We didn't do it, we might easily have done it. Never has the United States Government before come down, through financiers and volunteer agents, and spoken to you and to me and told exactly why it is waging this war and what it would mean if it should fail, to get the money in a way that will make the people understand how it was going to be spent, that it was doing more than spend money for gun powder and food, that they had to have some solid moral supporters behind it. We have got to have a mass of people in each of our communities organized behind social work, believing that it is a good thing that cannot be stopped. The reason that we haven't lost out during the war is that we have gotten the interest. But I fear there are some that have lost out. Measure their form of money-raising, is it going to pay? The man or the woman behind the dollar is what counts. By that measure the war chests will fill. Little benefit, in my judgment, can come of any war chests that have two kinds. It certainly is going to damage any social organization in a community to have them strung in under the enthusiasm of the war and have the public forget that there is any charity organization in the community for the period of the war and expect them to remember it again when the war is over.

My final point is this: The wonderful results that have been obtained through this campaign by enlisting the financial help of big business men, giving night after night of their services in all this campaign—for they have an interest in the war and have been willing to get in and do. It is easy

to say we should create the same interest in our work and get them to go and do it. It cannot be created over night. We must make an easy opening for those we expect to carry the financial burden of our cause, therefore put our business men on certain easy tasks, and I will only name one of them. Put them to getting the lapsed contributors back; they can easily talk to them, because they have been interested once and understand what it is. You can get them to go to them again and instead of asking them to renew their contribution, ask them definitely for more.

THE CHAIRMAN: I don't think I need be worried by my own optimism. It seems to me that Mr. Hall carries it still further. I thank Mr. Hall very much. We will now listen to a discussion on the social difficulties in the Larger Field.

MR. J. W. FAUST, *Field Secretary*, Atlantic Division, American Red Cross for New Jersey: I would like to say that since the first of December I have been going about the State of New Jersey visiting Sections and towns in which there are not charitable societies or any form of social work at all. I have heard very few groans that we are losing our workers, but a great deal of enthusiastic praise and a great deal of increased realization of what constitutes the job in which we are all interested. The idea that check-book philanthropy or the fact of good intentions per se are the prior requisites for doing social work is being done away with, if my observations in New Jersey has anything to speak for it. Community after community—I might name some you would be familiar with—that were antagonistic at the very word "social" work in any form, are now admitting family standards for Red Cross Home Service as a beginning, and later are beginning to look around and find out why certain conditions arise. It is just the sort of approach that those of us who are interested in bettering our neighborhoods and in bettering working, health and recreational conditions find a most inspiring thing. The quickness with which the Red Cross was able to get under way and to meet the difficulties of the home problems is due to the splendid enlistment of social workers of all kinds and descriptions. It is one of our great tasks to put in everyone's

hand the one thing which must be done toward winning this war. We must be able to train new workers who will be able to give part or whole time to those of our staff who need help.

In the effort of sustaining and maintaining standards in the larger field, it to me means war work, but it will revert and is reverting to social work. I know a community where they found it difficult to get volunteers for social work, but not so difficult to get them for war work. It is a hopeful sign that we are getting across to our State a conception of what welfare improvement means in a way that we have never done before. I think it is a millineum enough to have as a presidential problem, the value of child health and child welfare. I don't know how long it would have taken if it hadn't been for the war to have reached such a standard. I see coming as sure as Fate a ministry of public health.

THE CHAIRMAN: Now, we are going to have a few words from Mrs. Jacobson.

THE USE OF VOLUNTEERS

Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Chairman, House Service Section, Newark

In 1906 I was called to the Presidency of the Conference of Friendly Visitors of the Newark Bureau of Associated Charities. There were eighty-two volunteer visitors. We had about one hundred and fifty families to look after, and in each we did intensive work. Through the intervening years I look back with a sense of gratitude for the opportunity which came to me, for it taught me among other things that volunteers, properly used, are one of the greatest assets in the community. As I review the whole field of civic and social endeavor I wonder why it is that more public and private organizations have not turned more readily to the use of volunteers in social service and welfare work. Through the war the volunteer has come into his own. The Home Service sections of the American Red Cross are developing a fine corps of volunteer workers throughout the country, and if splendid results count for anything I am sure that volunteers will be

used much more extensively in the future than they have been in the past in all kinds of social and civic work.

I am rather inclined to believe that the real social worker, like Topsy, is born that way; but I know that men and women can be made social workers with time and training, provided they possess definite fundamental qualifications.

First, it is essential that he who enters the field of social work shall have good health.

Second, he must be blest with the desire to serve, and must believe in them.

Third, he must have good common sense, plenty of enthusiasm, optimism and tact.

Fourth, he must be a close student of human nature, and

Fifth, he must enter the work for the work's sake and with no ulterior motives.

Many not possessing these qualifications fall by the way-side, and, fortunately for all concerned, the student soon learns his limitations and those finding the work incongenial retire gracefully. Not every man and woman is equipped temperamentally or otherwise to do social work.

Granted then that volunteers are to be used, the next important thing is to catch your volunteers. Now, that sounds very easy, but from personal experience I can assure you that this is a big man's job.

After they are caught the next thing is to train them, and in order to train them you must know your job yourself. It takes patience and care and a good deal of kindness. I feel very strongly that many of us who think we know it all, many of us who have graduated from schools of philanthropy and other social service courses, are rather apt to look down on the volunteer and but grudgingly give him credit for common sense or anything else. Experience seems to count for naught, and nothing short of a certificate and a salary gives a seat among the elect. The failure of many attempts to train volunteers can be attributed to this attitude on the part of the trained paid worker.

Volunteers must be kept busy and interested. Weekly conferences at which good speakers present items pertaining

to the resources of the community, or definite subjects applicable to the work in hand, is one way of keeping the interest up.

Do not ask your volunteers to do things you would not do yourself and be sure to share the disagreeable things with them. Volunteers are to be used and not abused.

The esprit de corps in any organization is important, but in a group of volunteer workers it is of the greatest importance. Volunteers must be taught to pull together, to respect and befriend each other and to be loyal and confidential toward the work.

Before the Home Service work of the American Red Cross was inaugurated in Newark the Social Welfare Committee of the National League for Women's Service appreciated that volunteer investigators and visitors would be needed for service in the families of the soldiers and sailors. It issued a call for volunteers to take training and organized a class presided over by Miss Helen Pendleton through the courtesy of the Bureau of Associated Charities. One hundred and twenty-five women responded. Many who did not have the necessary qualifications or time fell out and when the Red Cross was ready to do Home Service work in Newark, there were just twenty-five women left to take up the work. Out of this number there are fourteen left at the end of a year. Fortunately, however, new recruits have heard the call to service and we now have forty volunteer visitors who are caring for over seven hundred families. Altogether we have been interested in more than thirteen hundred families since the beginning of the war, some of whom, however, are office cases needing only help in securing allotments, and allowance and other minor service. New volunteer visitors are constantly being trained.

Before leaving the subject of the fourteen charter member volunteers, I want publicity to express my appreciation of their loyal and cheerful service. They have made the lives of hundreds of men, women and children a little more bearable and happy during the stress and strain of these anxious war times. They have stood nobly by the Home Service and the families of the soldiers and sailors in their care, and no words of mine can adequately thank them for their devotion.

What is going to be the result to the community of all this training and war service help by volunteers? I venture to say that never again will the women and men who are taking training today as volunteer visitors and investigators be willing to go back to the old card-party days and to the old useless days. When the war is over and the Home Service sections lay down their task, I am hoping that the women who are giving their time and energy to Home Service work will find places somewhere in the community where they may permanently make use of their training, whether it be in the Bureau of Associated Charities, Department of the Overseer of the Poor, Board of Health, Tenement House work, or some other civic department or social activity. It would not be worth while to do all the work we are doing with the families of soldiers and sailors if when the men come back everything is stopped and needed help and friendship is not available. The work must go on, probably not through Home Service sections, but through the regular welfare organizations, but the present Home Service volunteers are going to go into that sort of work and they are going to do it well. I believe in the volunteer and I hope that the experience of the Home Service sections in the use of such volunteer help will bring about a very much larger use of this service in the civic and social activities of the community.

THE CHAIRMAN: I think the only surprising thing is that she didn't retain the whole one hundred volunteers.

I cannot thank my own speakers enough for their very efficient and delightful speeches.

We will now call upon Mrs. Cushing to take up her part of the Session.

MAINTAINING STANDARDS IN WAR TIMES IN INDUSTRY

Mrs. G. W. B. Cushing, East Orange, Chairman

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I wish this conference had followed the example of the National Conference and changed its name, because the subject assigned to this section is "Maintaining Standards for women and children in Industry" and it seems to me that per se women and children in industry belong neither to "Charities nor to Corrections." This afternoon I am afraid that I shall strike the only discordant note, but as Mr. Taft said last night, "I must speak the truth as I see it," with regard to maintaining standards for women and children in industry. So far as women in industry are concerned, New Jersey has not attained the standards of any progressive State, nor has it attained the standard set by fourteen of the great nations of the world. Let me explain. In 1906 a conference was called of the fourteen great nations of the western world; the only nations not represented at this conference being Russia and the United States. That conference was to consider employing women at night in manufacture. All the nations except one signed a treaty saying that no women in their countries should be employed in manufacture at night after ten o'clock and before six o'clock in the morning. That treaty has been faithfully observed. That is one of the treaties which Germany has not considered a scrap of paper. England unfortunately suspended it during the first year of the war and found out her mistake. New Jersey permits its women in industry to work all night. When a bill was introduced limiting the hours of women to ten hours a day there was in that bill a provision that women should have a period of rest at night. We were informed that if that provision were not taken out of the bill the bill would be killed, and we knew the persons who said that had power to do it, and the provision was taken out. It still holds good in New Jersey, that women in any industry may work all

night. Another failure to attain standards is that women in New Jersey may work ten hours a day while everywhere the eight-hour day is considered the basic day for industry. The health of working people depends upon reasonable hours, upon rest at night, upon adequate compensation. New Jersey has done nothing towards providing a minimum wage which would provide adequate compensation for its women in industry. I believe it is right we should state these facts in order to arouse interest. There has been no interest manufactured. I would not like to ask this audience as to how many of them have attended any hearings when a bill was considered limiting the hours of women in industry to eight. At the last hearing there were only four people present on behalf of the bill.

I am glad to state that with regard to children New Jersey has done better. I wish to acknowledge here today the debt we owe to the National Child Labor Committee for assistance in putting good labor laws on our statute books. Another excellent child welfare law was passed in 1915. So far as our laws are concerned the child has been well treated in New Jersey, but in a desire to assist our country in a time of peril, a mistaken patriotism would now drive children into industry. We are happy today in having with us someone who can tell us what standards in industry should be and I believe that New Jersey will make an effort and I think will attain and maintain those standards. I have the very great privilege of introducing to you, Mrs. Vladimir Sinkovitch, Greenwich House, New York City.

THE PRESERVATION OF INDUSTRIAL STANDARDS

Mrs. Vladimir Bimkovitch, Greenwich House, New York City

The one thing that I want to bring to your attention this afternoon is that all of us who believe very much in having the finest standards there are in industry at the present time

are very ardent believers in work for women. It isn't because we want to see women do as little work as possible. It seems that we ought to look forward to having people work up to their maximum, and if there were some way in which we could work out a legislative program of that kind by which we could see to it that people would work up to their maximum net ability in due accord with the occupations for which they are most fitted, we would then be able to get something done. In the case of women who have their home duties we have to consider them in that capacity as well and of their health. These two things taken together make a rather interesting and rather difficult problem for women at the present time. The nation needs women workers and needs women as mothers, so there must be an adjustment. We certainly do believe that the woman of leisure has gone, we never want to hear of her again, and these women who don't seem to have anything to do will never be in what you call social life any more. As long as the woman of leisure has probably gone, we may expect that all kinds of curious things will take place. There will certainly be much to look forward to with care and caution. All this has some bearing on the question of the standards which we ought to set for women engaged in the ordinary industrial pursuits. In the first place, we have to think of it from the point of view of health. It would seem unnecessary to argue that question at all. As a matter of fact most people are not considering the question of the future of the race. They look at it as the manufacturers do, to a certain extent, asking how much they are going to be able to get outright now, not realizing that there is a future. We certainly have to turn out as much work as we can now—right now, this very minute, but must take advantage of the facts that we have learned from other countries, and avoid all mistakes they have made. There isn't anybody in Europe today but will tell you that it is absolutely necessary to safeguard the women and children in industry at this time. But Mrs. Cushing has said to me and I have heard it in New York that the standards are not what they ought to be in New Jersey. It seems to me a very terrible thing that so very

few people seem to take an interest in these meetings that Mrs. Cushing told you about. I should think the first thing was to get up a set of standards in the State and then safeguard them. In regard to night work especially, I suppose that is true. In regard to night work for women, it would seem as if it were dangerous from the point of view of health and public morals, it is a very serious thing to have no provisions against night work. When we get to the subject of morals I realize we are on very risky ground. Woman can take care of herself at night as well as any other time. The fact is it is more difficult to maintain standards of public morals where there is night work than where there is not night work. Here we come again to that controversy that is going on amongst women themselves constantly and that is in regard to the independence of women and the protection of women, and those two things are developing at the same time. I know, for instance, what those women in New York City feel. There is quite a group of women who object very much to the provisions against night work we have in New York because they are independent and they say they ought to be allowed to work at night the same as the men because they get over-time and they say they are old enough to take care of themselves and want to take advantage of that situation. They say "What is the matter, we are just as good as the men." It seems to me what those ladies forget is that they form a very small group. The great mass of women workers are the young workers and they need the protection of the law absolutely and the protection these older women can give them by being willing to sacrifice in the interest of these young girls. It seems to me that is the appeal we ought to make to them, because the great mass of young women who are going to work in this country now are inexperienced, untrained. I think we should look forward to the time when we should not have to have restrictions for women that we do not have for men. I think the time will come as women develop and get more and more knowledge and experience that they will be able to look after themselves. But we are in that betwixt and between time when we still need the protective

legislation for women as a preparation for that time when the topic of legislation would be the same for women and men alike. If we were to make up a set of standards for women I think the form would be the abolition of night work for women; and that we should use that to further legislation which looks forward to at least the abolition or lessening of night work for men. We know that this is not absolutely possible. There is nothing we realize so much as we do now the lack of a good physical standard. We have always supposed we were a strong perfectly all right nation and now we know that we are not, that we are not what we ought to be in point of fact of physique; in this nation we have found that all out because we have had examinations of the men in camps. Isn't it exactly as important that the women of our nation should be strong as the men?

Second, one day of rest in seven. I don't believe that needs any argument for anyone. We know that people have to have some sort of rest in order to do their work efficiently. To get this it is a question of the organization of workers. It is a great thing in times of stress to be able to deal with groups rather than individual. Therefore it seems to me what we ought to do is to safeguard women by endeavoring to further as fast as we can the labor organizations between women.

I would like to mention one or two other points which have been spoken of very forcefully elsewhere in regard to this matter of safeguarding women—one is the exemption of women in industry with small children, that women should not be expected to go into industry if they have small children. I have had a good deal of experience this winter with a little working women's forum with which I have been connected. It has been a great interest to me to hear their point of view, and time and time again I have heard working women say, who have small children, they wish very much there was some plan whereby they could do some work outside of their home and some work inside of their home. There isn't a woman here who would not be a great deal happier if she had some work outside as well as inside of her home. I was in a city a few months ago where there was some idea of having a part

time factory in different shops by which women may work at home and could also work part of the time in factories. Now that was gotten up with the idea of increasing productivity. We don't know yet what are the industries which may have an adjustment of that sort by which women might have an interest and renewed vitality. It is one of the big questions that women should be considering, how to develop along these two lines of duty and responsibility to the homes and at the same time entrance into larger fields.

WOMEN IN NEW JERSEY INDUSTRIES

**Mrs. Jessie A. R. Whitnall, Executive Secretary, Consumers'
League of New Jersey**

A search for statistics relating to the entrance of women into new occupations reveals the fact that such figures do not exist, and that it is impossible at the present time to gather them.

An appeal for information from individual manufacturers was not fruitful. Many of those who have government contracts hesitate quite naturally to make public the extent of their orders and the necessary additions to their plant and working force.

The annual report of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics at Trenton is in the hands of the printer, but a manuscript copy was courteously placed in the hands of the speaker. Its data, however, applies to the year previous to the entrance of the United States into the war. A printed schedule is sent annually by this Bureau to every manufacturer in the State. The schedules for the current year are just beginning to come back from the manufacturers, and the statistics about the number of workers, hours, wages, etc., have not yet been compiled.

According to the latest available figures there are about 90,000 women in New Jersey factories. They are employed in some 2,400 plants, representing about 80 industries. These industries range from artisans' tools, books, buttons, corks,

clothing, cigars and cutlery through all the letters of the alphabet to watches and woolen goods.

There is a difference of opinion as to the shortage of male labor but apparently none as to the demand for women workers. This is nowhere more apparent than in the old lines of industry, such as the needle trades, wherein women have long been employed, but it is by no means confined to these alone. In 1915 only 143 women were engaged in the manufacture of high explosives; at the present time two firms alone employ 3,786. In 1915 the airplane industry was not even listed by the Bureau of Industrial Statistics; now, several hundred women work in New Jersey airplane factories. The manufacture of uniforms is another industry which has expanded greatly; one firm alone employs over 1,000 women in three plants.

Various employment agencies have standing orders from munitions plants and other specialized war industries for all the women available. There may therefore be no ground at present for the fear that women who have no economic reason for working, but are moved by an appeal to their patriotism, may usurp places actually needed by those who are self-supporting. In this connection, however, the following questions may well be pondered:

Shall the financially independent women be encouraged to enter the more remunerative war industries, leaving those less able to meet the rising cost of living to the underpaid trades? Does not the higher patriotism demand that those whose need is greatest should be given the first opportunity to improve their condition? Wages in the older industries have been revised only slightly, if at all.

The shortage of male labor—or the fear of such a shortage, has led to the employment of women in trades heretofore closed to them. Among these are the operation of lathes, drill presses, tapping and other machines, running elevators, working in glass factories, tending gates at railroad crossings, acting as conductors and guards on electric trains, and as cleaners, switch operators and machinists' helpers in railroad yards.

All this work is in such an experimental stage that it is difficult to draw general conclusions. The higher wages, the patriotic appeal, the adventure of undertaking the new and untried, have undoubtedly proven an attraction to many women. Employers state quite generally that women are dependable, loyal and competent. Whether they are physically capable of continuous employment at these more arduous tasks it is perhaps too early to decide. In the meantime every possible provision should be made for safeguarding their health and welfare, both as workers whose efficiency must be kept at the highest point, and as the mothers of future citizens.

Several dangers surrounding the wholesale employment of women in tasks formerly performed by men may be briefly indicated:

The first of these is that they may not be paid the same rate of wages as men are for the same job. Any lesser rate is unjust, not only to the women workers themselves, but to the men who on returning from the battle front will need to resume their former occupations; and yet already in one New Jersey plant women are receiving 30 cents an hour for a task which brought 55 cents to the men they have supplanted; in another women receive 25 cents an hour for performing a piece of work for which men were paid 30 cents. Employers argue that the productive capacity of women has not yet been demonstrated, but this argument cannot apply to the rate paid for work done by the piece. One reason why it has been difficult to secure a sufficient number of men in certain industries is that the proffered wage was insufficient for the needs of the head of a family.

A second danger is the entrance of women into industries for which they are physically unfitted as a sex. It has been England's experience for instance that women are more susceptible to certain fumes and poisons than men; that their employment in the manufacture of picric acid and other chemicals has resulted in premature and still births. Exposure to all sorts of weather, as at railroad crossings; absence from a rest room for a long period, as in the transportation service, and lifting heavy weights, as in the winding of armatures,

are all risks which no woman should be allowed to undertake without a medical examination and strict supervision and regulation.

The increase of night work is a third danger. Though fourteen great industrial countries and seven of our states have seen the wisdom of prohibiting night work, New Jersey still permits the health of its women workers to be jeopardized in this manner. Recuperation from fatigue takes place only in sleep, and sleep during the day is almost constantly interrupted by noise, light and lack of privacy. That certain manufacturers have opened plants in New Jersey because privileged here to work women on a night shift cannot be questioned. One such plant is located at Carney's Point, where about 800 women are employed at cutting powder.

There is a moral as well as a physical menace in night work. Women in signal houses at railroad crossings have sent complaints to the office of the Consumers' League of their loneliness and fear. Elevator girls now employed in several office buildings also dread the night hours. In the glass factories of south Jersey about sixty girls are employed on the graveyard shift, which commences at 5 P. M. and ends at two in the morning. Many of the plants are located in outlying districts and the girl workers must get home as best they can at this unseasonable hour. In one of the glass factories a little colored girl, a recent arrival from the South and just sixteen years old, told the investigator that she lived two miles from the plant. "How do you get home?" she was asked. "Oh I rides a bicycle on nice nights, and in bad weather I walks." "Are you not afraid to go alone at that hour of the night?" "Oh, no ma'am; they's a white boy lives on the farm jes' beyond my home, and sometimes he goes with me."

Still another problem to be solved is that of housing and transportation. Some manufacturers are handling it in an enlightened way by building barracks for the girl workers similar to those of the soldiers at the cantonments. Such provision has been made for the employees of the Du Pont Company at Carney's Point, where about 800 girls are housed. Single and double rooms, or cheaper beds in dormitories are

available, with comfortable living rooms and ample toilet accommodations. In other places, however, no such intelligence has been displayed. At an arsenal in the northern part of the State several hundred women workers are boarded out almost over an entire county. Those who live farthest from the plant must leave home by 5:30 in the morning and do not get back until eight at night. They are transported in unheated jitneys; their discomfort, if not actual suffering during the rigors of the past winter must have been almost unbearable.

This situation is not, however, confined to rural districts. Even in the larger industrial centers workers have been recruited from neighboring towns and have found transportation difficult. The trolleys are crowded and they must stand clinging to a strap after a long day of standing while at work. The families with which some of them board refuse to provide the necessarily early breakfast—they must all report at their working places by seven o'clock, so that they are compelled to go without eating until lunch time. Under these circumstances there seems to be an obligation on the part of employers, moral if not legal, to provide a lunch room where at least milk and hot tea, coffee or cocoa may be obtained.

One other menace may be mentioned in passing: the increase of factory work done in private, uninspected homes. This inevitably means poor pay, child labor, over-long hours, night work and improper sanitation in many instances. Danger from infection is so great that the United States government has wisely provided that all work on the uniforms of private soldiers must be done in well-regulated factories. In some other industries, however, manufacturers, because of their difficulty in securing a sufficient number of workers for their plants are sending out an increasing amount of work into homes.

I have thus briefly outlined some of the conditions under which the wage-earning women of New Jersey are compelled to labor. We are all agreed that the war must be won. Let us not forget that the very winning of it depends partly at least upon how we conserve the health and efficiency of our

workers. We expect them to turn out vast quantities of supplies and ammunition. We call them the second line of defense, and upon them depends the success of the first line,—our men in the service. Let us not forget either that the burden of reconstruction will fall most heavily on the next generation. The larger patriotism looks forward to the rebuilding of America and our own beloved State and demands the protection of the mothers of our race.

CHILDREN AS LABORERS

Charles A. MacCall, Supervisor of Attendance, Newark

I want to ask everybody here not to let this war proposition get too strongly in your ears so that you think the children should leave school and go to work. That is one of the greatest dangers we are facing today. The President, the United States Commissioner of Education and all those connected with the great affairs of this country say that it is not necessary and if we all hang together, we can prevent it. Of course, the high wages that are now being offered tempts the child. Our office has been flooded with applications. We have refused them all on the ground that it induces children to do work after school. In Newark I presume we issue twenty-five to twenty-six hundred working papers to children every year. This year we have tried to cut that down instead of having an increase.

By child labor I mean children under the age of sixteen years. For at sixteen years a child seems to have gotten beyond state or government control insofar as his or her education is concerned. Thousands of children are legally leaving school at fourteen and in many states even at an earlier age. Tempted by the large wage which is offered, parents resort to all sorts of devices to secure the release of their children at as early an age as possible, justifying their conduct with the thought that they had not received any better education and they do not feel that it is incumbent upon them

to keep their children in school when they might be earning a good wage.

All industrial plants are urged to speed up to their limit in production especially for war purposes and labor is not easily obtained so that employers are glad to pay many times greater wages to boys and girls than they ever have received before. But the President and the United States Commissioner of Education have repeatedly declared that there is no need for children of school age being employed. In fact they have strenuously urged that all children of school age be kept in school and that compulsory education and child labor laws be more than ever strictly enforced.

The reason for this can be plainly seen for the moment an entering wedge is made through either of these laws the whole structure of public education is threatened. The countries of Europe have suffered severely because they were so engrossed with the affairs of war that they were unable to see the terrible damage that was being done to their educational systems caused by the suspension of child labor and compulsory education laws.

Some of the highest educational authorities in England have openly admitted that the whole fabric of their excellent public educational system which was the result of hundreds of years of progress will have to be entirely reorganized after the close of the war. Another result of laxity in enforcing school attendance is an immense increase in juvenile delinquency in the countries "over there".

I recently read a letter from a prominent schoolmaster in a large English city who states that it is with great regret that the school masters of England have been compelled to again resort to the rod because of the growing lawlessness of the pupils. This admission alone, in the face of the fact of England's proud boasts for many years that no corporal punishment was either necessary or allowed in their public schools, shows to what an extent the schools and pupils have been injured through laxity in the enforcement of the law compelling school attendance.

People are too prone to look upon only one side of a ques-

tion during these extraordinary times. For example, during the past six months a well meaning body of men, actuated by the highest principles of patriotism, evolved a scheme whereby school pupils were asked to pledge themselves to earn ten dollars each for the benefit of the war funds. It was doubtless the intention of these people to have pupils earn this money outside of school hours by such work as running errands, shoveling snow, and doing special work for their parents. The boys, however, soon found that they could secure employment after school and on Saturdays in various factories and mercantile establishments. In Newark our office was overrun with applications for special permits to do this work. I refused to grant such permits to any children under fourteen years of age and endeavored to persuade all others to withdraw their applications. I did this even at the risk of seeming to be interfering with an excellent cause for the reason that I felt that the danger incurred in this proceeding was greater than could be compensated for by the ten dollars which might be earned.

These are the facts: A boy anxious to earn what he could for the war funds secures after school employment with a printer, for illustration. He is a bright, capable boy to whom an education would be invaluable. His employer recognizes his ability and pays him sometimes as high as four dollars per week for his after school and Saturday work. Being short of help the employer asks the boy if he is eligible to secure working papers and upon finding that he is eligible offers him twelve dollars per week if he will secure his working papers and regularly enter his employ.

The boy naturally tells his parents of the offer. The father who is struggling with the present high cost of living, dazzled by the prospect of the boy's earnings paying the rent and otherwise assisting in the support of the family immediately secures papers for the boy and he leaves school never to return to finish his ducation.

This is the way this scheme and others of a like character have worked out in hundreds of cases. Hundreds of children who never should have left school at an early age were

sacrificed because of the lack of thought on the part of the promoters of schemes which to their minds were of a distinctly patriotic and harmless nature.

Now a word as to the harmful effects of labor upon children under sixteen years of age. A survey recently made by the school psychologist in Cincinnati of one thousand boys, five hundred of whom were at work and five hundred at school, showed that the five hundred who had been at work showed twenty per cent. less progress both mentally and physically than the five hundred who attended school during a given year. These boys were all between fourteen and fifteen years of age and were selected from the same sort of environment so that there could be no class or blood distinction to enter in the test. The boys were put to many tests of a physical and mental nature and the results showed as has been stated.

In these times of unrest it is quite mutual for us to think of but one thing and that is the war, but we must give heed to our children because it is for them that we are now striving to make the world a decent place to live in. Do not let us allow them to grow up without an education because of any industrial stress for if we do, this country will receive a setback such as it has never known.

THE CHAIRMAN: As Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton is in the audience we would be glad to have a few words from him.

ERNEST THOMPSON SETON, *President Woodcraft League of America*: My dear President and friends, I highly appreciate the privilege of standing before you. I did not come here expecting to speak but I appeared as a representative of the Woodcraft League, and I found myself so very much in accord with the atmosphere of the place that I feel like claiming the privilege of brotherhood, that we are simply members of the same army, all fighting the same battle. One or two ideas were given out which impressed me very much. They are what one might call the secondary battles of the war. I think all of you realize the dangers of sacrificing the youth in what seems the dangerous way to win the war. Some of our writers have spoken of after the war consideration, forgetting the fact that we are now confronting after-war conditions. The old-

fashioned way was to cure disease. We are getting a little wiser now, and think less of curing disease than of prevention. That I take it is exactly the idea of this meeting—we are here to prevent these things before they occur. We know from published accounts that juvenile delinquency has greatly increased in some parts of Europe, and somebody said that it hadn't yet greatly increased in New York City. I have heard precisely the opposite statement made and I think on fairly good authority, that juvenile delinquency has increased in different places up as high as 65 per cent. above normal. So many of our best leaders are taken away from our midst and enlisted in some form of service. It is for us to fill their places.

Shall we become dormant in the matter of helping the young, the most precious things in the land? No, quite the reverse. I, unfortunately, was brought up in a very old-fashioned school which had for its law that we were born very wicked and that we must be saved. We realize today that children are not born bad, but we must save them from going bad. Suppose you see a boy in some harmless mischief, for instance tying a tin to a dog's tail. Now if you with your old-fashioned ethics go to that boy and say "You bold, bad wicked boy, let that dog alone," and then read him a nice story of a good boy who died and went to heaven, how much use will that boy have for you or your story or the heaven? On the other hand you get his attention if you adopt the modern method which assumes that all our instincts may be powers for good, and say "Bully for you, that's great, now here we will have some fun. That isn't the way to tie a tin—just hold on and I will tie a knot that will hold." Next you say, "Never mind the dog, I will show you how to tie a knot that will stick," and then, if you know your business as a leader of boys or girls, you tie two knots, one on the string, the other on the boy, tighten it around his heart, and by means of that string you will lead that boy into places you wish to take him and you never have to worry about the dog again. That is the idea we work with. We presume that all the overpowering instincts of the boy and the girl are not things to be counted

as absolutely depraved. No, most of them good—all of them may be made powers for good. If human nature is going wrong never crush it. If it is going wrong divert it; that is your job as a leader of the young.

I am in Newark today giving lectures on Woodcraft to different organizations. We ask you to accept our Woodcraft program. And what is that? First, woodcraft is a man-working scheme with a blue-sky method. An out-door proposition, trying to build up human beings. Second, it is something to think about, something to remember, something to enjoy in the woods, with a few hints at character building for manhood. I will tell you one more thought in connection with the woodcraft. It was the oldest science known to man, it was woodcraft in the beginning that created man out of the earth. His life was in the woods, his daily abode was with the forces of nature and the beasts of the woods his daily task to overcome. Then later the men got around the fire and this gave him his wonderful uplift above the beast. He learned to get together, to discuss things with the friends of the family, and mutually around the fire, there grew up the idea of human society, of brotherhood. If I were going to train a billy goat for a public performance I should not put that billy goat in a tank; if I were going to train a seal I should not tie that seal on top of a log. But put them in a circle about a fire and your results will be wonderful.

This is the message I am trying to tell of how to help the youth of our land both during the war and after.

Monday Evening, April 22, 1918

**Topic: CO-ORDINATION AND CORRELATION BETWEEN PUBLIC
AND PRIVATE CHARITIES**

Prof. Frank A. Fetter, Princeton, Chairman

Ladies and Gentlemen: The evening program will begin with selections by the Jubilee Singers from the Manual Training and Industrial School for Colored Youth, Bordentown.

CHAIRMAN: The subject for this evening is a very fundamental one: "Co-ordination and Co-relation Between Public and Private Charities." This is not one of those human-interest subjects that grips the imagination; it does not seem to be in close contact with human realities. It is like the cold planning of a campaign by the War staff, while out there on the field are all the deeds of heroism; yet all the individual heroism is in vain if the general plan is not right. Social work calls for much hard thinking, much hard work, and endless conferences and discussions, in order to work out the proper plans. But if this is not done the efforts of devoted individuals are expended in vain.

The word "Charities" apparently of late is on the defensive. Even those who a few years ago delighted in calling themselves charity workers have been apologizing for the term. A few years ago that excellent periodical "Charities" came to our desk each week; it discarded the title to become the "Survey." The National Conference of Charities, after long deliberation changed its name to the "Conference of Social Work." Now, I would not debate the question, but surely this has something of the appearance of a confession of failure. It is said that the word charities had acquired a bad meaning, had come to mean more dole-giving. Modern scientific philanthropy has been attempting to change that conception, but apparently it has failed. This is not the first time in the world that the word charity has had to be explained. The Apostle Paul found some misunderstanding

two thousand years ago, and he said "Tho I give all my goods to feed the poor and have not charity, I am nothing."

The modern ideal of a conference of charity is that of a meeting of experts—professional philanthropists and professors of sociology. Let us strive to make charity a matter of expert knowledge but let us likewise remember that the Apostle said, "Knowledge puffeth up, but charity edifieth." Social workers will not succeed in solving our problem by all their expertness if with it does not go that fine old spirit of charity; that which Mrs. Jacobson referred to today as fundamental in all social work, the human touch, the social sympathy.

The greatest problem of public charity is to develop and conserve this spirit. Only living people with hearts that can love and sympathize, that can feel and sacrifice, can be charitable. What is "the public" but a great abstraction? All charity in a true sense must be personal charity; and yet there is a real reason for the distinction between public and private charity. Men and women moved by sympathy for their fellowmen, act individually or group themselves in voluntary organizations, and we call that private charity. When problems cannot be effectively dealt with by private effort, men act together in larger political organizations and we call that public charity. But we cannot delegate to public officials the tasks of charity and go off and leave them. They are doing our work and we must support them and aid them or they will fail, because there will be lacking that element which makes any activity worthy of the name of charity.

The past year has seen the drafting and enactment of the most sweeping and important single act of charitable legislation in the history of the State of New Jersey. One of those most influential in the drafting of this bill said to me that the plan was not one to entrust the care of the State's wards to public officials and to cut off the private citizen and the philanthropic public of the State from their full participation in the work. On the contrary, he said, the more he had studied the problem the more he realized that any such plan would be a failure. What they were trying to do was to secure

better legislation through which the philanthropic citizens of the State could better and more efficiently express themselves.

We shall this evening present certain aspects of this recent legislation in the State of New Jersey. We were in hopes to have as representatives of the new State Board, the two men who were Chairmen of the two commissions respectively on State Prison and on Charities, but they are both at this time out of the State. We are, however, most fortunate to have with us the Acting Chairman of the Board, Hon. Ogden H. Hammond, who will now address us.

CORRELATION OF THE PUBLIC CHARITIES

**Ogden H. Hammond, Acting Chairman State Board of
Charities and Corrections**

The State Board of Charities and Corrections was created by Senate Bill No. 15. The Board is composed of eight members and the Governor ex-officio. The members are to serve without pay and are appointed for terms running from one to eight years.

At the first meeting held in Trenton on March 20, 1918, for organization, Dwight Morrow was elected Chairman; O. H. Hammond, Vice-Chairman; Richard Stockton was designated as Acting Commissioner of Charities; Miss Bessie Sutphen, Acting Secretary. A committee of three, E. P. Earle of Montclair, Dr. W. S. Jones of Camden and Mrs. Lewis S. Thompson of Red Bank, were appointed to investigate and recommend to the Board the permanent Commissioner.

At a subsequent meeting of the Board, Mr. Wm. W. B. Duryee of the State Department of Agriculture was appointed Director of Farms and Mr. George Grosscup was appointed Prison Labor Agent.

These appointments were made at the pleasure of the

Board and were made at this time for the reason that the important work of co-ordinating the work of the different farms of the State should be carried on and that the problem of utilizing the prison labor should be met as far as possible when the contracts would end on July 1, 1918.

By the creation of this new Board practically all the old laws which related to the management and control of the State Institutions, both charitable and correctional, have been repealed. This is a radical change and it may appear to some of you that radical measures will be taken. I wish to assure you that as far as I myself am concerned, and I believe I speak for the majority of the Board, that no extreme steps will be taken. The management of State Institutions cannot stand still; they must either progress or go backwards. The policy of the Board will be to advance along conservative lines and to keep this one great purpose in view—the improvement of the moral, mental and physical well being of the inmates, the idea being to make these inmates as far as possible an asset to the State and to Society rather than a detriment.

New Jersey institutions are now under the management of superintendents and boards of managers or trustees who are as faithful in the performance of their duties and in their loyalty to the State as may be found in any similar institutions in other states. To tear down such a structure by radical steps would be to defeat the purpose for which this Board was created. The policy on the other hand will be to build up, to bring about a co-ordination of the activities of these different institutions—to standardize the accounting systems and the various articles which these institutions purchase and produce, but above all to develop the social welfare of the inmates for it is by the betterment of the man himself of his family, the children in particular, can this great problem be solved—reformation like charity should begin at home and I believe in the future that here is where the greatest amount of work will eventually be done.

To sum up, therefore, what the Board will be, I will say that it will be the connecting link between all those different charitable and correctional institutions, a clearing house of

ideas and policies to be adopted, a board of conference and suggestion and of mutual benefit. As Professor Fetter has just said, "It will be by the human touch and not along institutional lines that real progress in the treatment of inmates will be made."

THE CHAIRMAN: We feel very grateful for the words that have been spoken and for the spirit that animated them. This is a very critical time in the history of New Jersey public work, for upon the policy that is developed within the next twelve months will very largely depend the history of New Jersey in the next twenty years. Bagehot, the great English writer on political subjects, said that a written constitution was not so important to good government as the spirit of the men administering it, and he declared that the New England Colonists could have made any kind of a constitution work successfully. The particular wording of our new charities bill is far less important than the spirit of those who have just been appointed to the Board. The bill is so formed that they can interpret it in this way or in that and still, doubtless, be within the law and the constitution. We cannot put all the responsibility upon them, for just as much depends on our spirit and, more broadly, that of all the people of this State. What shall be our attitude toward this Board? Shall we quibble at this or that part of the bill that we would have liked to have had different, or shall we in a spirit of co-operation support it heartily? It is of vital importance that, beginning with this very meeting, the New Jersey Board of Charities and Correction shall be an active factor in this Conference and not merely sit there at the State House in Trenton apart from the people. We hope that it will each year be unanimously represented here, reporting to the public and private social workers here represented, and in turn drawing inspiration from them and their work.

I call next on Prof. E. R. Johnstone, of Vineland, who will speak on "The Relation of a Board of Directors to Its Institution and the Superintendent."

THE RELATION OF A BOARD OF DIRECTORS TO ITS INSTITUTION AND THE SUPERINTENDENT

Prof. E. R. Johnstone, Vineland

Ladies and gentlemen, this was a joke. I didn't mean to speak on anything of this kind at this conference, but when we were speaking of the Superintendent and the troubles we thought he was going to have, I said, "Somebody ought to write a paper on this," and somebody said, "Well, why don't you do it." When I got the program my name was on it and that is what it said, and I didn't know how to do it, and I kept putting it off, and this morning in my room here in this hotel I sat down and I couldn't do it. I tried to think what kind of an individual I was; people had called me a scientist, a business man, an executive; they called me "Doctor" and "Profesor," and all sorts of names, and because I was duly modest I accepted them all and tried to live up to them, and when I tried to write on this subject, "The Relation of a Board of Directors to its Institution and the Superintendent," I thought of all the kinds of Board of Directors I knew and who had been called all sorts of names. I thought I would like to write like an ordinary common-place man. I wrote about it just like a little child would write a fairy story.

AN ALLEGORY.

Once upon a time the fairy Inspiro was sailing through the land and he came to a beautiful park covering many acres, and in this park were many buildings, large and small, stately and well-built, yet comfortable withal.

On the lawns were people playing, in the fields were others working, and all were singing. Through the open windows came the sound of voices, pleasant to hear and kindly in tone.

Going up to the most imposing of the buildings, Inspiro read on the corner-stone:

"DEDICATED BY THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY."

and on the line below:

"WHOSOEVER SHALL BE IN NEED, LET HIM ENTER HERE."

Entering the wide portals about which vines grew and

flowers bloomed, Inspiro came into a wide hall. A pleasant-faced, pleasant-voiced young woman greeted him. "May I look around?" said he. "Certainly," she replied. "We are always glad to have visitors."

Following his guide, he entered the room called "Efficiency." Here were desks with many papers marked "Requisitions and Orders," "Bills and Vouchers," "Reports and Records." In reply to his question, the cheerful person in charge told him that this department received its inspiration from the Financial Department of the State.

In the next room were school books, maps and drawings, devices of many kinds for the imparting of knowledge and the development of will and reason and judgment. Said the cheerful woman in charge, "We get our inspiration from the State Department of Education."

Next were charts on health and sanitation, models of open-air rooms and lessons on the physical care of the individual; everything in fact that might help to make a strong effective body and to prolong life, and the cheerful young men here said, "We get our inspiration from the State Board of Health."

Beyond this were model garden patches, tables for breeding, and of feeding rations, spraying formulas, and planting and harvesting calendars. And the inspiration for this came from the State Department of Agriculture.

From room to room Inspiro was conducted. Here were institution industries, here dietetics, here roads, here forestry, here weights and measures. Finally he asked his guide, "Is there any department of the State that does not enter into the needs of the institutions?" "None," she replied. "Which do you consider the most important?" is asked. "Follow me," she said, and straightway led him into a great hall. It was roomy and sunny, bright and cheerful. Entering it one felt like coming into a new world. "This," she said, "is the heart of the whole thing. This gets its inspiration from the State Department of Charities and Corrections. We call it the Hall of Love and Betterment."

"The Department is interested in all that you have seen in the other rooms. It is particular that the business shall

be efficiently done and it demands enough money to do it well. It wants every possible ward of the State who is capable of useful occupation, to have it, but it provides against overwork. It requires the best of medical and sanitary care. It secures the finest of training and every other need of those under its supervision. But it does not waste its time on the details of any of these things. They are worked out by the other State Departments."

"Many years ago it was thought that Charity and Correction meant business first, and the State Charity was considered a business affair first of all. The result was a place of business machinery, everything was measured in dollars."

"Then arose a new idea. Large minded people filled with common sense and high conceptions combined—people who could live and love and still do great things, worked and labored in divers ways. And one day, behold the Legislature enacted a great bill and the Governor appointed a Board that believed in the need of all of the things which you have seen, but set far above those the high ideals of Charity and Reformation in their truest sense. They appointed Boards of Directors for each institution, and as each name was considered, they said 'Is this person in hearty accord with the aims of this institution? Will he keep in touch with the best thought and experience in the country and in the world? Is his personality such that he will work in harmony with the others on the Board? Will he be an inspiration to the Superintendent, employes and inmates, not a reactionary?' And if they could answer 'Yes' to these and other like questions they said 'He shall be appointed to dwell in the Hall of Love and Betterment.'"

After walking a few steps, she continued 'In the years long past, most of the time at every Board Meeting and most of the visits throughout the institutions were those that had to do with business affairs, costs, repairs, equipment, etc. This being true, the Superintendent, in order to most satisfactorily meet the question of his Board, had to be in the most intimate touch with every petty business detail. His officers, feeling his attitude of mind, were most concerned with the material

side of their divisions. Teachers and industrial workers had before them constantly the cost and saving of materials. Even the attendants and caretakers had before them, always, lessons in economy. 'Be careful of soap, don't let clothing be torn, too many dishes are broken, furniture is destroyed.'"

"Do not misunderstand me," she continued, "all of these things were necessary, most necessary, but they should be secondary to a common sense love and ideal of reformation that looks particularly to the happiness and betterment of the inmates as individuals."

"In some institutions this was true. You could feel it. Before you had been in the place an hour you became conscious of a certain spirit that seemed to radiate the whole institution."

Then she turned and faced Inspiro, saying impressively, "You and I wish more than we wish for any other thing, that we may have happiness; not tomorrow, but now. The inmates of all institutions have exactly the same desire and they can only get it in its fullest degree when the ideal begins at the top. If the members of the Board of Directors of the charitable and correctional institutions of any State are appointed, first, because they have high ideals of charity and reformation, they will spend but a small fraction of their time, thought and energy on the business and material side of things, only enough to be sure that those entrusted to their care are having all that they need in every way. Other State Departments are better equipped to do these things. But the greater part of their time, thought and energy will be devoted to the principles and ideals for which their institutions have been organized. This applies to the Central Board and to the Commissioner as well."

"Such Boards will visit the wards of the State as individuals and will come always with encouragement to employer and inmate. They will not inspect in the unpleasant sense. The average inspector is looking for the thing that is wrong. He is negative. When he speaks of something wrong before another inmate or employe, he is technically called a "Snooper." He is unwelcome. Things are deliberately hidden from him. He establishes the fact that certain things are bad. And you

and I know that when people are disturbed or angry they immediately try to do the worst possible thing. And that is the thing that someone has established as a bad thing to do. Things that are found wrong (unless they endanger life or health) should be kept for the ear of the Superintendent only. And we all know that most Superintendents are already aware of them and are using every effort to set them right."

"But the new kind of Board Members are visitors, not inspectors, and are most welcome individuals. They are looking for the things that are good and right. They radiate joy and happiness wherever they go. They encourage and stimulate in a positive manner. Everything is thrown wide open to such. They establish the fact that certain things are good. And because everyone in the world loves praise, everyone works hard to have something still better the next time that that visitor comes"

"In the psychological laboratories of today there are instruments by which it may be proved that if you praise and encourage you may increase the net units of energy of any person, while if you scold and find fault you just as surely decrease the net units of energy."

"It is wonderful," said Inspiro, when she had finished. "And do you mean to say that the State Board really has that thought uppermost in its mind?" "It is all true," she replied. "Come and see for yourself." Then for many hours she led him throughout the State. Everywhere they found contentment, activity, joy, and the highest degree of practical results.

After his visit, he mused as he sailed away: "It is true. They have so uplifted, enthused, inspired and encouraged every institution in the State that each individual Board member, Superintendent, employe and inmate shows the effect. No wonder people come from all parts of the country to see how it is done in New Jersey. They are all more efficient. Their dollars go farther. Their aims are carried out to a wonderful degree, and from the Commissioner to the littlest child, all are happy."

"Happy?" he smiled whimsically. "When will our great world learn that happiness is here, and now; that he who is

happiest does his work with the greatest efficiency."

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr. Flemming and I heard Professor Johnstone make this bluff—so to speak—and we called it on him. We will now hear Professor Kirchway, of New York, who was so closely associated with the progress of the Bill.

THE CHARITIES BILL

Professor George W. Kirchway, New York School of Philanthropy

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: On my arrival here at this late hour I have been greeted with what will be to you, as it was to me, the very welcome intelligence that by some coincidence the speech which I was to deliver to you was delivered by Mr. Hammond. I am told, however, that I may, if I choose, multiply words for ten or fifteen minutes, until I realize that the audience is becoming so burdened that I would better stop.

I will endeavor in the short time at my disposal to tell you a little about the new Charities and Corrections Bill. I don't know whether your minds and emotions have yet reached the point of saturation with respect to that bill. It has been very much talked about in the circles with which I have come into contact, and you have heard about it here and your own thoughts have been much concerned with it for a good many weeks, not to say months, past. Perhaps there is little that I can add, excepting possibly to give you, from the intimate point of view of one who co-operated with the Prison Inquiry Commission in its investigations, some idea of the aims that inspired the Commission. The Commission was charged solely with the duty of investigating into the condition of the penal and correctional institutions of the State, which are five in number. It had nothing to do with the investigation of the charities, and it did not transcend the sphere to which it was limited. At the same time it made some very curious and interesting discoveries. It not only found that it could not investigate any one correctional institution without finding itself tied up with all of them, compelled to unravel the com-

plicated web of which they were all a part, but that it could not touch the correctional system without becoming to some extent involved in the system of charities, and it found itself unable to propose a solution of the problem of securing an ordered, co-ordinated, systematic administration of the penal and reformatory institutions without at the same time involving in any scheme which it might propose the whole system of charities.

I had the honor to appear before the Senate Committee at Trenton at the hearing on the bill, and a member of the Committee asked me whether I did not think it a mistake to combine in one administrative unit two sets of institutions that were so different in character and aims as the charitable and correctional institutions of the State. I had no difficulty in answering that the two systems were not in essence wholly distinct and different systems dealing with wholly different classes of persons—to be dealt with in a different way because they were different in character and aim,—but that the persons to be dealt with and the purpose which both systems aimed to achieve were, upon the whole, substantially the same. I went a step farther. I went so far as to say that I believed the best results would be attained if the correctional system should be administered from this time on in the spirit and by the methods in and by which the best charitable institutions were being administered. I called attention to the fact that recent investigation had shown that of the inmates of Sing Sing Prison, over one-half, approximately 60 per cent., were either mentally defective or insane or so afflicted mentally that they were as good as insane. And what is true of Sing Sing is doubtless true of Trenton, of Rahway, of the State Home for Boys, and of all the other reformatory and penal institutions. In other words, the old notion that a criminal is a criminal, and the lunatic is a lunatic, that “the East is the East, and the West is the West, and never the two shall meet,” has gone by the board. The lunatic, the imbecile, the psychopath may or may not also be a criminal, but, if, as is almost invariably the case, his mental and moral irresponsibility antedates his criminal act, it is clear, is it not, that what he

needs and what he is entitled to is hospital treatment rather than punishment in a penal institution. Perhaps when we have made an adequate study of the remaining 40 per cent. of our correctional population—those whom the psychiatrists class as “normal”—we shall find that there are methods of treatment—psychological, educational—which will give our penal institutions more of the character of hospitals—moral hospitals—than they now possess.

We stand with this bill in our hands at the foot of a precipice over which the flood of shattered humanity, the broken souls and bodies of men, women and children are being hurled, and we gather up these human wrecks and, as far as we can, restore them to such a condition of repair as is still possible; and if they are ever fit to resume the struggle for existence in which they have been wrecked, we aim to put them back to “make good,” in the world outside. And if they cannot be made fit to resume the battle of life in the world that has once rejected them as unfit, we must keep them, as best we can, in a hospital for incurables where they will no longer be a source of wretchedness to themselves and of moral and physical contamination to the community outside. The problem is one and the same, is it not, whether the person had been convicted of a crime or whether he has been found to be insane or feeble-minded? He must be put in such a state of repair that he can make his way, if that be possible, and if that be not possible we must seek the same end with regard to those who have been convicted of crime as with respect to those who have been found to be incurably insane or feeble-minded. We must segregate them and keep them from again becoming a menace to the well-being of the community.

When the Prison Inquiry Commission set forth to propose, as it was charged to do, a solution of the problem, it found itself very much embarrassed to find one in any form of machinery which had yet been devised; and, as it wrestled with the problem and studied the experience of other communities in dealing with it, it came to the conclusion to which I think all wise men must ultimately come, that there is no salvation in machinery. There is a very striking story of

Solon, the Athenian legislator, who, after putting his new criminal code into effect, went into voluntary exile for ten years, in order that the operation of the new laws should not be affected by his personal influence; and, after ten years, his self-imposed exile at an end, he came back and found his laws flouted and everything in confusion. And when people reproached him and told him his laws were no good, he replied: "The fault is not with my laws but with the administration of them. If they have failed it is the people of Athens who are to blame." We are not told whether Solon learned from this experience the lesson which we, most of us I fear, have still to learn—that a good law is only the first short step toward improvement. We still have too much faith in the efficacy of legislation. We forget that the law has no more vitality than that which is imparted to it by the administration which it receives; that the very best laws may be perverted by bad administration, and that even a very imperfect law in the hands of a wise and public-spirited administrator may operate very much better than a very perfect law which is not wisely administered.

And so the Commission set forth to devise and recommend a system under which, may I say, anything is possible; a system so flexible and yet charged with so much power that it might be perverted by bad administration to the basest uses, or that might, by wise, prudent, judicious administration, be of incalculable benefit to the people of the State. In short the Commission came to the conclusion that it could not devise an administration powerless to do wrong unless it devised one at the same time powerless to do right; and so a plan has been proposed which is capable, according to your own sweet will, of working either weal or woe—and I don't know of a better plan than that. The aim was not, as I say, to devise and put into effect a plan which would be self-operative but rather one which would not work unless it was supported by the people, the members of this Conference, the people of the State of New Jersey. I believe that under no system of administration that could be set up by human wisdom could you get efficiency in the administration of the

criminal and charitable institutions in this State on any other terms. Hear the language of the Commission; I quote from its report: "Your Commission believes that in this, as in all other schemes of government, the attitude of the people towards the institutions that may be set up will determine the character and development of such institutions much more than any form of government that the wisdom of the Legislature can devise."

In other words, my friends, it is up to you and not up to the Board of Charities and Corrections or any Commissioner that may be selected. Never since the days of Solomon have we succeeded in getting the ideal wise man into judicial or other high office—and I have had my doubts about Solomon. There is no escape in a democracy from the individual responsibility of every member of that democracy. You may delegate power but never can you delegate the ultimate responsibility for the sound workings of your democratic institutions. That is true in the achievements of peace just as it is true in the achievements of war. So I would end by saying that just as the responsibility for the success of this great experiment in penal and charitable administration has now come to rest as never before on every individual citizen of the State of New Jersey, so in exactly the same way and in no other does the responsibility for carrying on this great war in which we have become involved rest upon every citizen of the commonwealth. I did not come here to make a war-like appeal to you, but one cannot touch upon the subject of administration in a popular government without coming to a new realization of the fact that the ultimate responsibility rests upon, and cannot be shifted from, every man, woman and child in the community. And one cannot at such a time as this speak of the responsibility of democracy without thinking also of the great opportunity which in our time has come to this greatest of all democracies. It is not a duty, only, to make of your penal, correctional and charitable system what it should be, it is an opportunity that you should stretch out your arms to welcome. It is not a duty, only, to buy Liberty Bonds, to sacrifice your life or the lives of those nearest and dearest to

you in the great interests of humanity—it is not a duty, only, it is a great opportunity, the greatest that has ever come to a people; and it is in that sense that I would like to have you regard the life that lies before you in this time of struggle and opportunity. Who would care to be born into a world in which one did not have to struggle for better things! Some of us have sometimes even doubted whether a Heaven paved with gold and furnished with golden harps and with nothing to struggle against and nothing to fight for was really worth having. The true man and woman, with the spirit of fire in his soul, which Prometheus brought down from Olympus, with the spirit of adventure and daring which is the most godlike thing in us, would not choose to be born into a world or at any other time than one such as this, when everything that makes life worth living depends on himself—on the greatness of his will, on his devotion to the common weal.

RESTORING DISABLED SOLDIERS

J. J. Kelso, Superintendent, Neglected and Dependent Children, Toronto

Mr. J. J. Kelso of Toronto, who is the Government director of Child-Welfare work, showed about one hundred officially prepared slides, illustrating in a vivid way the splendid work Canada is doing in caring for and restoring to civil life her wounded and disabled soldiers. Nearly half a million men were sent overseas and of this number 35,000 have returned. The Hospital cases numbered about 18,000 and of these about 11,000 are at present under treatment. There are 1,200 men who have lost a leg or an arm, and as quickly as possible these are fitted with artificial limbs. Trade schools for the returned soldier are established all over Canada, and before the men are finally discharged from the army they are ready to take a good position. A liberal pension fund is provided by the Government, the appropriation for this year being eight million dollars. The address gave a lot of useful information to those who will take up similar work in this country.

Tuesday Morning, April 23, 1918

Topic: SAVING THE CHILDREN IN WAR TIMES

A. W. Abbott, Orange, Chairman

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONFERENCE: We were told last night that we were to begin on time. We are about fifteen minutes late. We believe that this morning's session will be one of vital interest to this conference, because it has to do solely with child life, and whatever has to do with the welfare of the child is of great importance to every social worker of the State of New Jersey. In the few remarks that I shall make as your Chairman, I want to state something with regard to the legislation that was passed by the 1918 Session of the Legislature of New Jersey that had to do with the Juvenile Court and child welfare laws in general.

LEGISLATION CONCERNING JUVENILE COURT AND CHILD WELFARE

WORK ACCOMPLISHED BY THE NEW JERSEY LEGISLATURE, SESSION OF 1918

During the 1918 session of the New Jersey Legislature several bills were introduced and passed having to do with making the Juvenile Court and Child Welfare Laws more workable. A great deal of time had been spent by people interested in Child Saving Work in New Jersey as a result of which Legislation which was accomplished this year has placed New Jersey in the forefront so far as the care of children are concerned.

Child Workers of the State of New Jersey found that in operating under the Juvenile Court Law in many cases an injustice was done to the child. The Child Welfare Act, approved April 8, 1915, was passed in order to force parents to properly perform their functions as Guardians of both the

body and mind of the child, but unfortunately the Domestic Relations Court Bill, on account of the clause prohibiting that Court from having criminal jurisdiction, could not have jurisdiction under the Child Welfare Act and, therefore, such cases of necessity had to be tried in the County Court or in the Local Police Magistrate's Courts. It was found that by prosecuting the parents instead of the children we could secure results by forcing the parents to keep up the home and therefore protect the child. It also secured another excellent result in decreasing very largely the number of children committed into the State Institutions. Seven Bills were drawn to accomplish this object six of which were passed unanimously and were approved by Governor Edge on February 8, 1918, and I believe will do this work most effectively and place the Laws of New Jersey in the lead of any State in the Union. It is a self-evident fact that if we can force the parents to do their full duty by the children and keep a proper home, that the vast majority of the children will grow up to be good normal citizens. New Jersey can be proud of the fact that its dependent children today are as well taken care of as any child in the State and they are taking their positions in life and are a credit to the State. If we are doing this for the dependent children should we not at least be as careful with the delinquent children, especially when the vast majority of delinquent children become delinquents on account of the life of their parents. Therefore, the parents should be punished and not the children. If we have the power to punish the parents a great many of them will reform their ways and we will secure not only the reformation of the child but also of the parents thereby increasing greatly the benefits of the child also.

The Juvenile Court Law in Counties of the First Class provided that a child must be convicted of being a Juvenile Delinquent in order to place such a child in the care of the New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians so that he may receive the protection of the State and be properly cared for. Assembly Bill No. 18, which is now Chapter 81 of the Laws of 1918, has stricken out this portion of the Juvenile Court Act and transferred it to the Act Concerning the Domes-

tic Relations Court where it properly belongs. The parents are all interested and proper defendants and justice can not be done to the child where he alone is defendant before the Court and under the old Law it was necessary for the Court before the conviction of the child to induce some good-natured citizen or child-caring society to take up the prosecution of the parents in the Lower Police Magistrate's Court. Other amendments to the Law correct patent errors and also to supply a place where not only the child can be taken care of but the mother.

Heretofore when a child at the age of fifteen and one-half years was placed on probation the period of his probation ceased in six months time when he reached the age of sixteen years. This ought not to be for the Probation Office would of necessity have to surrender the case and cease its work of reforming the child's character. Many cases have come to the attention of the Court where the child after leaving the care of the Probation Officer has taken a downward course and finally landed in the Criminal Courts whereas many of these children could have been saved if the Probation Officer could have continued his work with them. Assembly Bill No. 20, which is now Chapter 82 of the Laws of 1918, provides that the jurisdiction of the Probation Officer over the child committed to him can continue for the full term of the probationary period of which the maximum is three years, thus carrying the child over the danger period of life. This we feel is a most excellent law as the Chief Probation Officer of Essex County has stated.

Assembly Bill No. 21, which is Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1918, provides that the Judge of the Juvenile Court sitting as Judge of the Court of Domestic Relations will now have full power to hear and determine cases not only under the Disorderly Person's Act as formerly but also under the Poor Law and the Child Welfare Act. Our Juvenile Court Act was based upon what was then believed to be the proper way of handling children's cases, but since that Law was passed it has been found that the child can be far better protected and the parents of many children can be forced to reform their

bad habits by prosecuting the parents and forcing into their minds the fact that if they do not bring up and educate their children properly the State of New Jersey will do it for them and send the parents to jail. One Municipality of New Jersey had a school attendance of 85 per cent. A new Judge was appointed who had the parents prosecuted under the Child Welfare Act of 1915 and he made three parents reimburse the city for the city's loss of ten cents per day for each day the child was absent, in less than three months the school attendance had been increased to 95 per cent. This illustrates what is happening in other classes of cases of a similar character and the parental affection when properly aroused will do more to cause the rehabilitation of the home than any other force that can be used. We Child Workers of the State wish to use its force to the full extent as it has been proved far more efficient than any other system we can use.

Assembly Bill No. 23, which is now Chapter 85 of the Laws of 1918, provides that Juvenile Courts shall now have jurisdiction of a criminal nature and this Law gives that Court the proper jurisdiction. The correction made in the Child Welfare Act of 1915 provides for a better Court practice than was contained in the original Act and it was made with the unanimous approval of both the Judges and the Child Careing Societies who have been operating under this Act. Amendments to Section six and eight under the Law provide for what is believed to be a better form of procedure for the commitment of dependent and neglected children and makes the practice under this Act agree with the method of committing Juvenile Delinquents.

Under Section one of the Juvenile Act of 1903, page 447, a person under the age of sixteen years who is jointly committed with one or more persons over the age of sixteen years and would thereby be classed as a criminal. Assembly Bill No. 24, which is now Chapter 86 of the Laws of 1918, provides that a person under the age of sixteen years so convicted shall not be adjudged a criminal but as a Juvenile Delinquent and the record of his judgment is to be forwarded to the Clerk of the Juvenile Court.

These new Laws should be studied very carefully by every Social Worker throughout the State of New Jersey. They are the last word in Legislation concerning Child Welfare and as I said at the outset, they place New Jersey in the foremost ranks of all the States in the Country. The Laws of 1918 are now published in book form and every Child Welfare Worker should secure a copy from the Clerk of the Municipality in which you work, and study carefully Chapters 81 to 86 inclusive, pages 211 to 221, of the Laws of 1918 and compare them with the Laws which they amend or are supplements thereto.

I wish to call your attention to a Manual of Laws prepared by General Secretary C. L. Stonaker of the State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association including laws connected with the work of the Overseers of the Poor. Juvenile Court and Child Welfare Societies brought right up to date with amendments as passed at the 1918 session of the Legislature. Copies of this Manual may be obtained at Mr. Stonaker's office, 13 Central Avenue, Newark, for twenty-five (25) cents each and I want to say a copy ought to be in the hands of every Social Worker in the State of New Jersey. Copies in Pamphlet form of the Child Welfare Act of 1915 with amendments and supplements passed at the 1918 session of the Legislature may be obtained from the chairman of this meeting at the small cost of one cent each per copy.

I also wish to emphasize the fact that at the 1918 Session of the Legislature a Commission was appointed by the Speaker of the Assembly, Hon. Charles A. Wolverton, consisting of five (5) Assemblymen to investigate the matter of Juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts in the State. The Commission has organized and will hold two Conferences with every Social Worker in New Jersey interested in the dependent and delinquent child. The first Conference by courtesy of Hon. Edward Schoen, Juvenile Court Judge of Essex County, will be held in the Essex County Court House, Newark, Thursday afternoon, May 2, 1918, at 2:30 o'clock. This Conference will be open to all Social Workers in County Court Judges, Probation Officers, Child Saving Agencies, Bureaus of Associated Chari-

ties, Superintendents of Schools, School Attendance Officers and all persons interested in Juvenile dependency and delinquency. The second Conference will be held on Thursday afternoon, May 16, 1918, at 2 o'clock in the Camden County Court House, Camden, New Jersey, by courtesy of Hon. Charles A. Wolverton, Prosecutor of the Pleas of Camden County, and to this Conference are invited all Social Workers in New Jersey South and including Trenton.

We hope the Commission will consider very carefully the suggestion made by President Robert L. Flemming in his address on Sunday night at the opening Session of this Conference to change the name of Juvenile Court to "Family Tribunal" and to make it a Court of Equity and not a Criminal Court. This can be done if it receives the unanimous support of all the Social Workers in New Jersey.

It is with a great deal of pleasure that I have the honor to introduce the chief speaker of the morning, a man who has been well trained and is well tried in work of the dependent and neglected child of our sister country, Canada. Most of us, if not all of us, heard Mr. Kelso last night. I had the pleasure of meeting Mr. Kelso at various national conferences of our country. He has come from Canada to meet with us annually at some of the most important conferences that have been held. It was my pleasure to meet Mr. Kelso first at the Detroit Conference in 1902. We have kept tabs on each other ever since and I am sure what Mr. Kelso has to say will be of great interest to us, especially at this time, his topic being "Taking Care of Soldiers' Families."

TAKING CARE OF SOLDIERS'

FAMILIES

J. J. Kelso, Superintendent, Neglected and Dependent Children, Toronto

Friends, it is certainly quite a pleasure to come across the line and meet social workers, because I am always quite at home in the United States and feel there is a kindred spirit among us all in talking over the social work in which we are

engaged. We have learned something through the war that I thought might be of interest to you this morning. One hears a good deal of talk about the inequality of wealth and the problem of having so much money in the hands of the few and so little in the hands of the many, and this is often the cause of much distress and wretchedness in our large cities and all over the country. The war as it affected our own City of Toronto has brought much practical benefit financially. That is a strange thing, because war is supposed to be wasteful and destructive in the extreme, costing millions of dollars every day, and yet in our city the effect has been to raise up the working classes and put them at once in a position of independence and almost affluence. In Canada we have a great many people of English, Irish and Scotch descent, and a large number of our poorest settlers came from England. The moment war was declared there was a great impulse for service, and thousands of men voluntarily enlisted. In the one City of Toronto, with half a million population, we sent to the war 45,000 men. That is a large number to take out of any city, and you can readily understand how it would dislocate business and all the various industries and disturb the whole life the community. Of those 45,000 there was a large number that belonged to the emigrant class, as we would call them—and that is one thing you must say to the credit of the emigrant,—that he has proven himself loyal to the old motherland and eager to serve in her time of need. Many of these men have made excellent soldiers though they may not have been altogether the best kind of citizens. A large number of men who earned say \$15 pr week would give about half of this or less to their wives to run the house on, spending the balance in the tavern and on cigars and amusements. There is a great deal of selfishness among men and many fail to realize how much they owe to their wives. Families were living on the ragged edge of poverty, distress and charity. They had to be helped by the Church, and by the Charity organizations—getting a dollar here and there to keep things going. Children in many instances so poorly clad that they couldn't go to school. Well, these men all went off to war and left their

families behind, most of the homes averaging from three to five children—we had one family where the man went to war leaving a wife and ten children. The country said, "Of course, we must take care of the families because these men are giving their all for the war. That is the least we can do." Our Government decided that "for every married man that goes to the war we will give the wife \$20 a month (now \$25). In addition military regulations require that every man enlisting must leave \$15 per month of his pay with his family. Thus the wife starts in with \$20 from the Government, \$15 of his assigned pay; and to supplement this we organized a Patriotic Fund to further help these women and children. Wonderful generosity has been shown and millions of dollars have been raised for war relief work. The people of Toronto have given nearly five millions to a Patriotic Fund, given freely and gladly, and sometimes money is contributed by people who could ill afford it, so anxious are they to do their share—working girls getting seven to ten dollars a week would give one dollar a week to help these families. This money is distributed on the basis of so much per child and so much to the wife, and altogether it brings into the family a sum running from \$35 to \$85 a month. That money comes in as regular as clock-work. All they have to do is to go to their local bank and draw the money. I have seen these poor people lined up at the bank counter, all getting from \$30 to \$70 each. And what a change socially! It simply meant that these people began to live respectably, clothed their children, better school attendance, more comforts in the family and with self-respect so increased that they were able to hold up their heads like other people. The poor are often discouraged and oppressed simply because they are poor. They haven't the inspiration that would enable them to look like other people. We have seen families that were in poverty and filth and misery transformed through this regular money into decent, tidy, respectable folk. There has been criticism that they are getting too much money, but that wasn't a fair criticism, and it came mostly from people who imagine that the Lord has decreed that certain families should always be poor and correspond-

ingly humble. One woman who bought a piano was reproved by the committee and informed that they were going to lessen the amount. Now, that woman came to me as a court of appeal and said: "Do you think I was too extravagant? When I was a girl I learned to play the piano, but, unfortunately, I married a poor man and I never had a piano in the house from the time I left my mother's house. When I began to get a little money I thought here is a chance to take up music again." Wasn't that a reasonable explanation? She loved music and having a knowledge of it naturally craved for a piano as an outlet for her pentup emotions. The very poorest people have a right to all the beautiful things of life. We must not be too critical. Now you can see how all those people are helped by the war and what a benefit it has been to the city to have these families better supported. There has been the more equal distribution of wealth we have longed for. This patriotic fund is expended at the present time at the rate of \$150,000 a month in Toronto, in addition to the other amounts already mentioned. For the improvement of moral conditions there is a great moral lever through the Patriotic fund. We have, of course, a large number of ladies engaged in investigating the homes and supervising the distribution of this money. If a woman is not living the right way, is guilty of any immorality, then they have the power to stop the payment. There is nothing that will straighten people up quicker than that. It has given us a power and authority that, if rightly used, may be of inestimable value, but this is another point on which we have to be reasonable. There has been considerable immorality among soldiers' wives since the men went away, but we ought to have a great deal of sympathy with those classes. There were hundreds of women accustomed to a certain amount of protection from their husbands who were suddenly left alone and they were expected to walk circumspectly and never speak to another man. Some of these women have said to me: "The ladies on the committee say you must not have a man come to see you and you must not go out driving, but they never invite us to their homes or do anything to brighten us up." We don't realize enough the diffi-

culties and temptations from their side. I have had women come to me and say, "Those committees give us lots of advice but we would do far better if they would invite us to tea." That would be real practical friendship. Often in addressing Probation officers and leaders in boys' work my advice has been: "Don't give the boy advice, give him a good dinner."

As time went on soldiers were killed and, unfortunately, we lost a lot of men. Our City Council was very generous and said, "Every man that goes to the war from Toronto we will insure him for \$1,000," and this has meant a very heavy and constantly increasing expenditure running into millions of dollars. The Canadian Government last week in its estimates of expenditures for 1918 set apart eight millions to meet payments to families and to the soldiers permanently maimed and injured. This money is coming into our cities and is a sure payment that is being distributed at the rate of about \$100,000 a month in Toronto. You can see, therefore, that while we may be piling up a huge national and civic debt, this money is going to release us in some measure from that terrible curse of poverty and pauperism. We have practically no poor relief at present; we have nobody in our city that really needs relief, because through the financial distribution and other uplifting agencies combined with unlimited opportunities for employment there is evidence on all sides of the most wonderful prosperity.

Another thing that was of great benefit to us and that came directly from the war, was the enactment of prohibition. Our Provincial Government simply by an Order-in-Council passed a law proclaiming prohibition for the period of the war. That went out all over the country, that prohibition was to go into effect on September 16th, a year and a half ago. People could hardly believe it when it took place, and surely parliament and all concerned saw at once the wonderful change for the better. Families that were hopelessly sunken in wretchedness and misery became sober, steady, law-abiding. When it became inconvenient to get drunk the men gradually settled down; many former heavy drinkers are now putting in their spare time in little gardens trying to raise vegetables for their families.

These are all very encouraging thoughts to social workers.

You all know the old-fashioned idea that all dependents should be put in public institutions—we were very much afraid that the Government would establish large institutions and fill them with maimed soldiers and war orphans, and we were immensely relieved when they said “No, we are not going to do anything of the kind, we are going to keep those children in the families of our people, first of all to find out their relatives and place the war orphans with their own blood as far as it can be done, and failing that we will board them in families.” We have a great many of these children whose parents are both dead in family homes and we encourage them to maintain the children without payment from public funds. The moment you begin to pay for children in family homes you put the whole thing on a commercial basis. In our Province and Dominion we place out thousands of children in foster homes and don’t pay a dollar for board. Even where there are war insurances we say to them “Now, you want to do a good thing, take these children and educate them at your own expense and let this money accumulate so that later on they can go to college,” and we have a great many people who have refused to take the pension and say “We will provide all the board for the child if we could have a certain small sum for clothing; and we hope to see this boy go to college and the money can then be applied on an advanced education.” That is a very beautiful spirit and it is the only spirit in which we should do work for children. We seek through the Churches and women’s institutes and benevolent organizations for people to adopt needy children, because they can render service not only to the State but to God in the training of these boys and girls for citizenship. That is the motive that underlies our work.

Now, if you will allow us to do so I would like to tell you something about our child protection work in Ontario. I know that New Jersey has the best laws on earth, but a speaker said last night “there is no salvation by machinery.” These laws must be put into operation and vitalized by love and efficiency and the kindly spirit. I have always found you

can accomplish a thousand times more with even the most degraded and outcast people by love and sympathy than by coercion and prosecution, hauling them to police courts. I believe if all social workers would cultivate that real spirit of comradeship with the people, the poorest and friendless, they can awaken something good that is within them and bring it into active force.

In our country we have a child-protection system that thoroughly covers the rural as well as urban population. In many States you will find a splendid Children's Aid Society in a city, but five miles out in the country there is absolutely no organization. In another town you see a small struggling society, nobody interested because it is poorly managed; here and there good societies, and then other equally important districts with no social relief work of any kind. In our part of the country we have a system that covers the city, the town, the village, and even stretches way out into sections where only the Indians live. In our system we have a central government office which is financed entirely by the State; all the machinery of that central office—thirteen clerks and officers acting under the General Superintendent, and a Children's Aid Society in every community as the active agents in the work. No society can be organized for child-saving work without a Government permit and this guarantees supervision and a certain degree of efficiency. That is in order that we may control and direct the work. We have sixty-two of these organizations, managed and controlled by local benevolent people but following the exact same system. Copies of the act, local papers and other printed matter are supplied from the central office. We have forty-five to fifty County Agents of Children's Aid Societies and they are paid salaries, running from \$1,200 to \$2,000 a year. Every case of a child made a ward has to be reported to the central office. All the evidence is sent by the district society to the central office to be scanned, certified and entered on record. We have all these cases in such shape that if any case be appealed to the higher courts the likelihood is the Society will be sustained because of careful procedure in the first instance. Out of twelve appeals tried

before the higher courts last year there was only one that was granted.

Another important thing is that we have all these children, about sixteen thousand in number, recorded and supervised in a government office just as carefully as we would record the discovery of a gold mine. We have the records that go back for twenty-five years and some of these are immensely valuable and interesting at the present time. Then note, the great value of a Government department of vital statistics and the prompt entry of all births. Every youth that enlists or is near the age for service has to have a birth certificate. We have had thousands of lads apply for a certificate of their birth because if they are eighteen or nineteen the recruiting officer steps up to them and says, "Well, you look as if you ought to be in the army." He says, "I am only nineteen." The law requires that he must carry a copy of his birth certificate. All those records are preserved in the Parliament Buildings and are available for a small fee. In our Children's Aid work young people come back after they have married and want to know their history. A girl will come in, about twenty-two, married, and say "You know I was under the care of the Children's Aid Society in a certain place for many years, now I am married. Have I got any relatives, is there any brother, sister or anybody you think it would be well for me to know?" We bring the young people into touch with relatives when it is advisable sometimes fifteen or twenty years after they have been taken in charge by the Society.

I want to say to all child-saving people,—one of the very first things you ought to do is to get in writing a complete family history; find out the aunt, grandmother, uncle, put it all down and file it away and you will find the data immensely helpful later on, because they are sure to keep coming back. We have in my office thousands of records that can be referred to at any minute.

Another important thing is the supervision of children in foster homes. I think there is no greater brutality than to adopt children out indiscriminately and then rely entirely on correspondence as to how they are treated. We don't believe

in that, and all our Societies having recorded their children in the central office we divide these children up according to counties and we have every child personally visited. We send out official children's visitors and the whole expense of travel is borne by the Government. This is something that should be done everywhere. Sometimes a child will be located in a very out-of-the-way place and it may require going on the train for a trip of perhaps two hundred miles, then taking a motor car or horse and driving twenty or thirty miles more, because we have a big country and foster homes are scattered. No matter where a child is, we secure in writing a complete report of its welfare and progress by Children's Aid specialists. We have these reports made in duplicate and one is filed in the central office, the other goes to the Society interested. If there is any proof that the child is not going to school, looks unhappy, or is ill-treated, we can take children away from people even when they don't want to give them up. No child should be compelled to live with anybody who does not want it. I remember well a boy who had been up before the Juvenile Court about six times. At last he was brought to me for an interview. All I said was: "Begin at the beginning and tell me all about your troubles." In a few minutes he had the tears running down my cheeks out of sheer sympathy for him. The whole story was: "Mother died, father married again, now they don't want me around. His heart was starving from lack of affection and friendship and he was driven to lawlessness through despair and homelessness. Inside of a month we had that boy placed with big-hearted people who tried to make up for his great loss, and the result was there was no more trouble with him. If we only get at the root cause of delinquency in children and remove that, we would stop a great deal of trouble.

In every State there should be some efficient method of covering the country with a social welfare network. In some districts and villages schools are very poorly attended. Uplift work for the child is the basis of all community progress. The real Children's Aid friend must be working all the time seeking to improve the school system, the housing conditions,

recreation, moral standards—you see how the welfare of the child enters into everything!

There is not much time left to speak about reformatories for boys and girls. You have your two big institutions for boys and they are well filled. I believe, however, there are too many hasty commitments to such institutions, especially from the smaller places where social work is not well organized. Each institution of this description should have preventive officers, always aiming to keep comparatively innocent boys out and getting good homes for inmates at the first sign of penitence and willingness to do right. Drifting on in the enforced companionship of the idle and vicious element they may come to greater harm and be a permanent loss to the State. All those cases ought to come to the Reformatory through the Children's Aid after the most exhaustive consideration and I am a great believer in having young ladies look after boys, for what boy with a manly heart does not appreciate the kindly friendship of a young lady! We had a case I have often spoken of in meetings just to show what is in the heart of a boy: A lad charged with all sorts of offences was committed to the Reform School, and the police notified the school to send officers to take this boy out. They said, "If you will have him delivered at the station we will have someone there to receive him." Two big policemen escorted him down to the station when a little slim woman stepped up and said, "Is this my boy?" The officers looked astonished and said, "Do you expect to take this boy out to the school?" When the officers went away she said, "Now, you know I couldn't run after you and I couldn't fight you, I would have to depend on your honor. Can I trust you to go with me?" and the boy said, "Yes." She said, "That is all that is necessary, I will believe you." There is no use trusting people with a string to it—better go the limit. She had sense enough to send this boy to buy his ticket and to carry her parcels. When they got in the train the lad said, "If those cops had given me the slightest chance I would certainly have run away from them," and then he looked up at her archly and said, "But you know, I wouldn't run away from you for the world."

Most delinquent lads should be treated just like children and not as criminals, and the supervision of a young lady is better than an unsympathetic officer.

War with all its horrors has done a tremendous lot for the country in the way of new and progressive legislation. There is no cloud so dark but has a silver lining, and when the war is over, as we pray it soon may be, and we look back and see all the progress made in social work and the new spirit of altruism that has been awakened, I believe we will recognize that God has a wise purpose in all He does. I have talked with people, mothers who have lost their boys, their joy in life, those whose hearts have been broken and a great many people who have suffered through the war, and yet do you know it has beautified and glorified their lives as nothing else possibly could. Common suffering and loss is bringing the people closer together. Social work is better appreciated and is being more efficiently developed than it ever was; money is given more freely for every good object. People said at the beginning of the war: "We will have to close our charities, we will have to retrench," and foreign missionary societies said, "We will have to close the mission." It hasn't proven that way at all. Our charities have more money, our churches have more money, foreign missions are better off than ever and there is no worthy cause being neglected, because if you get a person accustomed to giving, the joy of giving enlarges their heart and they find new happiness in service for humanity. I think you have nothing to fear about any lack of money, the thing to do is to go right on with the good work. You have in New Jersey the best Social laws that can be devised, a splendid body of high-minded social workers, and there's a great future before you in advancing the status of the child, and thus permanently elevating and improving the home and the State.

MRS. JACOBSON: I wish to bespeak a word of appreciation for Mr. Kelso's inspiring talk. I would like to ask Mr. Kelso a question. In the case of these families that are not poverty-stricken, what is going to happen when John Jones comes back from the war, making \$15 a week, giving his

family four or five? What is going to be the result of raising these families out of the depths and bringing them to a place they cannot maintain when their husbands return.

MR. KELSO: I am fully convinced we shall never go back on any good thing we ever start. This great stream of charitable giving will be devoted to social adjustment, everything that is beautiful. We have been reaching a standard of existence people have not seen. I believe the time is coming when people will not be required to work more than six hours a day. That may seem very optimistic. Machinery is being so wonderfully perfected. That spirit of invention is very characteristic of the American people. It is being developed to such an extent it will not be necessary for people to slave. It is coming, and we all ought to work for it. We are not here simply to be drones and slaves. Don't let's wait for Heaven somewhere in the skies; Heaven is all around us.

THE CHAIRMAN: I cannot allow any more questions just now to Mr. Kelso. We have some stated speakers and to these we are going to throw the meeting open. Some of these gentlemen are going to take up five minutes and some less. The first five minutes is not going to be taken up because Mr. Stonaker has been called to war work in New York and is now engaged in that work and regrets his inability to come to this meeting.

The next speaker will tell of "Conditions in New Jersey."

Rev. J. C. Stock, Superintendent N. J. Children's Home Society

Since our country entered into the war there has been a reduced number of homeless children received for placement in family homes, and also a reduced number of children who have been helped by the New Jersey Children's Home Society. The same condition prevails with us as with kindred organizations in this State and with organizations as described by Mr. Kelso. One reason given by him is true with us. Men are making larger wages at this time and they are able to support their families. They may spend just as much money as heretofore for drink, but they have been earning so much

there is enough left for the support of their families. This is especially true in southern New Jersey, where men are leaving pulpits and finding employment in the several shipyards down there, and still there is room for more, and the wages they are receiving is almost beyond belief. A young man visited my home last Saturday evening. He said that his ordinary pay was \$50 a week and his overtime brought it up to \$72 that week, and he is going to take another position shortly that pays \$1 an hour. That is not uncommon; young men twenty-three years old work for \$52 a week, others receive \$69 for the same time. There is money in abundance, so that these families formerly neglected are being cared for by the father. He has money enough to provide for them. The war has made work for men. As I remarked this morning, in the case of those who are not willing to work, the Legislature of New Jersey has provided a law that the men shall take up the lot that the war has made for them. Another cause is that the Government has so generously provided money for the families of its soldiers. We have been called upon in several instances to seek out men who had enlisted under assumed names and as single men, and we have been able to bring the matter to the attention of the Government so that one-third has been paid to the families in addition to the money which the Government allots to families. Previous to the war, there was dependency in some of these families. There are improved conditions. We are taking fewer children, and on the other hand, strange as it may seem, we are having more applications from homes for children, for adoptions than we have ever had before and we cannot supply the demand for children under four years of age for families who wish to adopt them. On the other hand we are having just as great a demand for boys above the age of twelve years from families to take the place of men who have entered the service of their country. We are living at a time when there are certainly improved conditions among the childhood of the State of New Jersey.

**Rev. Canon Augustine Elmendorf, Secretary Social Service Commission,
Diocese of Newark**

Our subject this morning is the question of Child Welfare in New Jersey. It divides itself, as I see it, into two parts. First, the great work carried on by the State Board of Children's Guardians, and second, the rest of us.

I want to bear testimony first to the great work which is carried on by the State Board of Children's Guardians, which it has been my privilege to know about, not merely as one interested in their work, but because I have made a personal investigation of the way in which children coming under their care are placed out and the kinds of homes in which they are placed. It has been my privilege to call on the children and see these homes in Sussex, Essex, Monmouth, Hudson, and Burlington Counties and I want to testify to the admirable work which has been done, the careful supervision given by the inspectors and to the happiness of the children.

In regard to the rest of the work carried on in New Jersey, we are in a condition where we make possible the exploitation of children. Anyone who desires to make a living, if he is so disposed, can gather together a few forlorn children then go out and beg for their support, and incidentally his own. There is nothing to prevent anyone doing this, whether it is for the best interest of the children or not.

One of the things it seems that we should work for is that there should be some method by which the State could be brought into connection with all child welfare work. Dr. Kelso said that they have some such system in Canada. We are not agreed regarding the desirability of having State supervision of private institutions, but when it comes to the question of caring for children at least we might work out something in the nature of State supervision, inspection, or endorsement because we ought not to leave children in conditions where poverty may make it possible for them to be exploited by anyone desiring to care for them, whether they be fitted to do so or not.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next speaker is very well known in New Jersey. For several years she has been the Superintendent of the State Home for Girls in Trenton.

Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, Superintendent State Home for Girls, Trenton

We have 253 girls in the home at present. We have 249 on the outside who are being cared for by our three parole officers, who visit the girls. I don't think there is any girl under our care who isn't looked after at least once a month.

The girls do the principal part of the farm work under a woman farmer. Last year we ploughed up our front lawn and planted beans, which were very helpful during the year. In the houses the girls do the canning and preserving, so that we may use things later on. Last year we raised \$15,000 on our farm and we are hoping for still better products this year.

The girls have school work during the day and this year we have engaged two teachers from the Trenton schools, who come in at night to give them additional instruction, given in the form of lectures and pleasant talks so that the girls are not fatigued in attempting this work after their household duties.

We have had a law passed which gives us authority to board our small children. We couldn't very well send a girl out until she is sixteen. As they come in at the age of ten, it would be at least six years before we could indenture them. We don't want them institutionalized but want them adjusted to ideal outside conditions. We find families who take these girls, board them and send them to school. They must show a report so that we may know what they are doing in school. The girls who are paroled to their people must also show us their school report.

The teachers in the colored schools have organized a society they call "The Big Sisters." They take the colored girls who are living outside to entertainments, and various places. Nine of our girls go to the Trenton day schools and come home in the afternoon.

We have some girls who have been taught dressmaking who now go out to dressmaking establishments and bring home their wares. Girls who are indentured are allowed one-half their money to keep their wardrobe in order, the other is banked and given to them when twenty-one, or if a girl marries with the consent of the Board she is allowed to pur-

chase her trousseau. I want the people of New Jersey to come to visit us and the girls. If you have any girl in the home you are especially interested in, come and see her; write to her. We have had kind friends who have taken the names of girls and written to them. I wish some of the people would take the names of girls and would write to them. The girls value a personal letter.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next speaker is a newcomer to social work in Essex County and the State of New Jersey.

Edward Schoen, Judge Essex County Juvenile Court, Newark

My brief experience as Judge of the Juvenile Court of this County does not qualify me to speak with authority on problems which have perplexed the most earnest social workers.

I can only endeavor to translate into words some "first impressions," which I have "kodaked" from the observation tower of the Juvenile Court.

First, I have concluded that the term "Juvenile Delinquent" as applied to the boys and girls who come before the Court, is a mis-nomer. The boys and girls who are brought into the Juvenile Court are merely the objective symptoms of social disorder. In disposing of the cases before me I have not yet pronounced the word "Guilty," and I do not intend to. If I did, I would feel that it was just as barbarous as the act of the ancient ruler who wrote his laws in small letters and posted them on high posts the more easily to ensnare his subjects. This evil brought into the basic law of our land, the provision that in order to make a law operative, it must be published. A citizen is then presumed to know the law, and any infraction makes him guilty. But what has been done to bring home to our juveniles the code of right and wrong? Given an alcoholic parent, illiterate and unclean, morally and physically, together with bad housing conditions, can you charge the child who is growing up in such surroundings, with delinquency? For such a child, laws of right living are in small letters indeed. And on very high posts. His little eyes have never seen them and his little ears have never heard them. Delinquents? How can one be delinquent before one knows the standard by which to measure one's conduct?

A very learned writer, speaking of a "child" said, "A child is a man in a small letter. He is nature's fresh picture newly done in oil, which time and much handling dims and defaces! His soul is yet a white paper, unscribbled with observations of the world, wherewith at length it becomes a blurred notebook. He is purely happy because he *knows no Evil*."

As the little urchins appear before me in court, dimmed and defaced, I cannot summon the will to punish them, but I must confess to a vengeful feeling against the hand of vandalism which defaced that "fresh picture newly drawn in oil." The re-touching and restoring process can be applied when the vandal's hand which has defaced the picture, is permanently made impotent.

And this brings me to a question which should be uppermost in our minds in this work of protecting and helping the child.

Do we give enough time and thought to the causes which bring boys and girls of tender years into Court? Having found the cause, do we make the proper effort to eradicate it?

A good doctor, before beginning to treat a physical disorder, will endeavor to find the cause for the symptoms complained of. So, in the treatment of the social disorder, of which juvenile delinquency is the symptom, let us seek out the causes and eradicate them. In this field the Juvenile Court can do a large work, and I conceive it to be no small part of its function. The Juvenile Court should be a laboratory, where the germs which are destroying wholesome child life, and producing an ænamic body-politic, may be detected and then isolated.

The State endeavors to protect our health with laws regulating the manufacture of what we eat, and drink and wear. These laws prescribe in the minutest detail, the working conditions which must exist where food or clothing is made. The vigilant eye of inspectors of the labor department and of the Board of Health are ever on the alert for violations of these regulations. We have routed out sweatshops! Why? Because it was shown that wearing apparel made in unsanitary surroundings may be the carrier of health-destroying

germs. Have we been equally vigilant in routing out conditions, morally unsanitary, under which the characters of the future men and women are being molded? Are the ingredients, when fused and welded, going to produce a metal with the true American ring? Conditions, morally unsanitary, must be combatted with—every weapon that can be commandeered, and this brings me to a suggestion for more volunteer probation officers, and for the formation of a large vigilance committee; something similar to the system of volunteer automobile inspectors for the detection of auto violators, and speeders. Such a committee could watch for and report, at once, any practices which are operating to injuriously affect the character of any child, and point out specific cases. It could be of inestimable assistance to the Court in eliminating *causes* for juvenile short-comings. In a community like ours where the population is so large, the efforts of our little staff consisting of four court attendants might be likened unto the little Dutch Boy who tried to stop the leak in the dyke with his little fist.

The result accomplished in the Juvenile Court depends largely upon the spirit with which its proceedings are conducted by the presiding judge. The name you give the Court will not contribute to the sum total of its accomplishments. It matters little whether we call it a Juvenile Court; a Court of Domestic Relations or a Home Welfare Court. Though I agree with those who advocate the extension of the powers of the Court along the lines of equity procedure. If the Judge presides with an eye single to determining whether or not the child is guilty—or not guilty—of the offense with which he is charged, he misconceives the function of the Court. If he seeks to find and eradicate the causes, then—

Finis, corona, opus.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next speaker is so well known in New Jersey that she needs no introduction.

Mrs. H. Otto Wittpenn, President, State Board of Children's Guardians, Jersey City

The staff of the Department of the State Board of Children's Guardians, which carries on the work under "An Act

to Promote Home Life for Dependent Children" commonly called the "Widow's Pension," consists of the General Agent, one Assistant to the General Agent, ten Agents, one General Office Assistant, one Clerk, one Typewriter Copyist and one Stenographer.

The cost of the administration of this department to the State was \$19,977.26 for the year 1916 to 1917. \$259,399.16 was paid by the Counties to the widows throughout the State.

From October 31, 1916, to November 1, 1917, 732 petitions were filed throughout the State, 890 petitions were heard, 425 petitions were denied, 36 petitions were withdrawn, 169 petitions were pending decision, or considered decision reserved by Court on November 1, 1917.

Since July 4, 1913, when the Act, entitled "An Act to Promote Home Life for Dependent Children" went into effect, up to April 1, 1918, there have been 5,282 petitions filed throughout the State, 5,057 petitions heard, 2,534 petitions denied, 267 petitions withdrawn, 86 petition decisions reserved by Court on April 1, 1918, 2,170 petitions granted, 294 orders revoked by Court, 1,876 families receiving relief on April 1, 1918, 225 petitions awaiting hearing on April 1, 1918.

Number of families in care of Board April 1, 1918, 2,170; number of children in care of Board, April 1, 1918, 4,128; number of visits to families from November 1, 1918, to April 1, 1918, 16,264.

Under the settlement clause of this Law "A widow must have lived five years continuously prior to the filing of her petition, in the County to which she applies for relief."

The following amounts can be granted under the Law:

One child \$9, maximum; \$5 for the second child, and \$4 for each additional child, as follows:

One child, \$9; two children, \$14; three children, \$18; four children, \$22; five children, \$26; six children, \$30; seven children, \$34; eight children, \$38.

The Judge may at his discretion, grant less than the above amounts if the case so merits.

We feel very kindly our responsibility in reference to the proper supervision of these families, but with the present field

and office staff we are not able to keep in as close touch with these families as the law requires. We have been able to make on an average of between two and three visits to each family during the past year. We feel the results we have in view will be obtained only when we are able to visit at least six times a year in accordance with the law. Our inability to visit these families regularly is the greatest problem we have to meet in this work, because so many of the women who are receiving relief need so much personal encouragement and advice in the expenditure of money and care of the home.

The number of children in the care of the Board April 1, 1918, was 1940. Of this number 1,090 were in boarding homes, Of the 1,950 children in our care, 127 of these children are placed in private Institutions throughout the State. This number includes both dependent and delinquent children.

One of the greatest problems during the year has been to secure homes for children either boarding or free, owing to the increased cost of everything and in many cases the removal of the men of the family for war service. Many of these applications for children have been withdrawn because the sons have been drafted and they did not feel they could undertake the added expense attached to caring for children, particularly for the amount of board we pay. At the beginning of the year the Board increased the amount of board from \$2 per week to \$3 per week, even with this increase we are having trouble to find homes. Never since the beginning of our work have we been obliged to systematically canvass for homes until this year, when we were obliged to do this, and the result of this canvass was not very satisfactory.

509 children have been committed during the year. This is the largest number of committments for one year since the beginning of our work, and is due to the fact that a number of new laws have been enacted for the commitment of children to us through the Courts, as 105 of this number have come to us under the court committments. The cases coming to us in this way are more difficult to place immediately in private families, because they are committed direct from the Court to us in a deplorable condition in which they are found.

It sometimes takes several weeks before they are in a fit condition to be placed in a private family. A great many of these children are suffering from malnutrition, bad teeth, skin diseases and other conditions caused by the neglect of their parents. The first thing to be done is to place them where they can have a bath, clean clothing and have their heads cleaned.

The policy of this Board is not to place the normal child in an Institution. However, we find now that we are receiving children under several different Laws other than the Law passed in 1899 creating the New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians, namely, the Law of 1910, providing commitment of Juvenile delinquents by the Juvenile Court, and also the Law of 1912, providing committment of neglected children by the Juvenile Court, and the child Welfare Act of 1915.

We are getting under Court committments a new class of children,—some of whom need temporary Institutional care. We feel in such cases it is better for the child to be placed temporarily in a private Institution by us—rather than to have it committed by the Court to one of the State Institutions. First, because there is no stigma attached to the child who is placed by the State Board of Children's Guardians in a private Institution; second, because every child placed by us in a private Institution is supervised as closely as the children who are in private families; and on account of this supervision we are able to learn the character and general inclination of the child, and become better able to tell whether it can be controlled in a private family, after a reasonable period of training in an Institution; third, because after temporary training in a private Institution the child is placed in a private family, and subsequently lives a normal life.

We have twenty boys in the United States Service (Army and Navy), all giving a good account of themselves.

The cost to the counties and municipalities during the past year for board, clothing, medical and dental work, was \$142,671.

The cost to the State for the administration of the work was \$22,640.32.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next speaker is a very dear friend of mine. I owe a great deal to him because of what my son is today.

Charles R. Scott, State Secretary, Boys' Work, Young Men's Christian Association

The Young Men's Christian Association in its work with boys of the 'teen age includes boys in the Grammar, High and Preparatory Schools, boys in factories, stores, and offices, as well as in our State Institutions, and in foreign and colored sections of our large cities.

The present War conditions greatly increases the need for work with boys for there is a restlessness on the part of the youth of our State. We have discovered that there is a lack of home restraint. Father and brothers have enlisted; mothers have had to go to work while many others are devoted to their work in connection with the Surgical Dressings and Red Cross. This has led boys to grow indifferent and careless, and the police court records show an increase in Juvenile delinquency. At the State Home at Jamesburg there was an increase of 175 boys committed during 1917 over 1916.

We have also discovered that the boys' love of adventure has led many to enlist under age, which has unsettled their companions in school and community. They have been reading thrilling tales in books and magazines; they have heard many patriotic addresses; they see the movies and as the soldiers and sailors are their heroes they naturally imitate them. There is an abnormal demand for boy labor and abnormally high wages are being paid to them. Easy money subjects them to the fiercest temptations and they spend freely for many unnecessary things. The movies and cigarettes are great attractions. They can see no difference. They can see no reason why they should not smoke when every agency is going out of the way to furnish tobacco for the men in the service. Gambling is very noticeable and other temptations have been too much for them. War time problems, therefore, seem to touch every phase of our home life and every time an American soldier is killed the value of every American boy increases. They are our second line of defense and a National Asset. Can we afford to neglect them?

With all the restlessness we have also discovered that the boys are thinking and are responsive to leadership. The Association has adopted a policy which will increase the budgets, give better supervision, and provide an active program, which should conserve the boy life of the State and prepare for the Reconstruction Period.

THE CHAIRMAN: We have a new-comer in social work in Essex County who will take up a few minutes in describing conditions in Essex County, as she has found them.

Miss Anna Louise Davis, Superintendent, Essex County Parental School, Newark

My interest and work in your community is in the welfare of the supposed delinquent child. In Newark you probably have the best example in this country of a high class laboratory to study the causes of juvenile delinquency. I wish the Newark people knew us better. The visitors who come to us seem to think we have a strange or unusual child. The fact is, we have a very active and very normal child. We have in the School our very good Judge and Doctor and Psychologist; resident trained nurse, efficient teachers, high-grade supervisors and everything needed to study the child, to grade him as to mentality and find out the cause of his delinquency, and that report is a matter of record, and we can make all the statistics you need from that and can give the judge the necessary data for his case, but what I want to say to you this morning is this: that while we can study the child and give you the causes of his delinquency, back of it all there seems to be very little use to have this child arrested and brought to us, and classify him and then send him back into his own home and same conditions, the same street corner and street gang, and have the machinery of the law again go forth and re-arrest that child and bring him back to us, because while we may study the child there, if we put him back into the same condition we are not removing the cause of his delinquency. My view is, after you have just heard of the very splendid things they are doing in Toronto with the large expenditure of money for their children, I want to ask that

you will here in this country, possibly spend less money but give a little bit more of human interest to these children, that we may have more follow-up work for our children and more care. You know the active nature that these children have that come to us that causes them to be delinquent if handled correctly would make them just what we want them to be. You know how children love companionship. They would very much rather have a soap-box and hammer than the very best toy. Children love the gang spirit, they love to be together. Take the ordinary child that has no other friends but the street corner gang, if you can clean that up and direct the energies of these children you will save them from the courts.

J. C. Sperry, Supervisor Attendance, Jersey City

The principal thing I see emphasized here has been the ordinary child delinquent, and in that I agree thoroughly. I don't believe in pessimism. I do believe that these boys that go wrong do so as the result of their environment. I had a nice little fellow come down to my office, with a defiant expression on his face. I said "Did you come down here to fight?" I said, "There isn't any fighting here. Now, darn you, smile." The trouble is the lack of sympathy, lack of encouragement, the boy doesn't get any at home and doesn't get any in school. I would like to get all of this band of workers engaged in my work. I would like to see if you could not make an impression upon the school teachers and upon the parents, so we could make the conditions under which these boys exist entirely different. You know no man makes a success unless he has a desire for it. If you can make that desire so strong he will exert every bit of his ambition to accomplish that desire. If we can get the same kind of work on the boy we will get somewhere. Let's hold up a higher ideal and get that desire excited.

THE CHAIRMAN: We are going to close this open parliament with Mr. McDougall, who is connected with the Bureau of Associated Charities in Newark.

**A. W. MacDougall, Superintendent, Bureau of Associated
Charities, Newark**

My speech ought to be acceptable because it will be the last. I am sorry we haven't more time at these meetings to discuss more fully the content of all the good papers that have been read. I represent a group of societies that are dealing with the family problem, day after day. I want to contribute two thoughts that have come to me strongly throughout these meetings. We are just now in the midst of preparing for war, of doing our part to bring the great war to a successful conclusion. Naturally and rightly, we are bending every energy to this end, contributing all our resources and concentrating all our thoughts upon it. There is also another phase of this war. We are fighting to make the world safe for democracy; therefore, in all our preparations to end the war we must at the same time have in mind the after-war period and make these preparations play into a program for a more sincere and complete democracy when the war is ended.

We wrote recently to one of our legislators urging the passage of the law abolishing night work for women. In answer, he expressed belief in the passage of such a law, but thought it a bad time to urge such legislation. He did not realize that on the contrary it was the very time to urge such Legislation; since women were taking the place of men and English experience had proven the greater efficiency of labor when properly safe-guarded.

We heard, in one of our sessions, from the Home Service workers of the Red Cross that the soldiers' families did not want charity. The service rendered the soldiers' families ought not to be a charity, but neither should the service rendered our poor families be a "charity." Societies like the one I represent are trying to get away from this idea of charity and it is one of the opportunities of the Red Cross Home Service Workers to carry this new idea of charity, of service, over into the new order after the war.

Let us give these Home Service volunteers this new conception of charity. We are fighting to get rid of the idea of

charity and to substitute the idea of self-help and self-reliance.

Another thought regarding the carrying over into the new era after the war of things we have learned in our preparation for the war. The government is spending hundreds of millions of dollars on war preparation, and we are contributing millions of dollars for Red Cross, Y. M. C. A. and other war charities. Let us carry the new spirit and the bigger idea over into the new order and spend millions of dollars on getting rid of some of our enemies of social life such as tuberculosis and other preventable diseases menacing our country now and that will be menacing it still, after the war.

Finally, may I express the hope that in future Conferences we will give the best of our thought to a study of the family and all those influences that help or retard family life. Personally, I believe this to be the most fundamental topic of the Conference, the one that is at the base of all the other social problems we are discussing.

THE CHAIRMAN: Before we separate let us show our appreciation for the splendid talk that Mr. Kelso gave us this morning. We cannot let a Canadian do all he did and let him go back without some expression from us.

A rising vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Kelso.

Tuesday Afternoon, April 23, 1918

**Topic: COMMUNITY SERVICES (Other than relief) ARISING
OUT OF THE WAR**

Mrs. H. Otto Wittpenn, Chairman

In going back to the beginnings of this conference which has been meeting, I think for seventeen years there is one figure which stands pre-eminent before the minds of those who have been privileged as few of us have to attend every meeting. I don't know how many of you knew and remember Mrs. Williamson. I suppose her efforts influenced others in putting on the statute books some of the most useful laws. I love to think of this Conference as a question of progress

in character, which goes from place to place and gets much from the place to which it goes and leaves much behind. That is what we have been trying to do year after year, and so each one of our sojourns of a few days has brought with it its own particular note. I want to believe the note we take away is going to be the note that was so beautifully expressed by the poet of our clan, Professor Johnstone; the note of happiness. It is that I want to see brought out in our program this afternoon.

It is youth which has a right to recreation, and somebody with a great vision has seen to it that the importance of recreation be emphasized in reference to the young people gathered in our camps and cantonments. That is our subject for this afternoon and I think it is original and interesting, and I am sure we are all going to enjoy it immensely. The first one on this program will be Dr. William O. Easton, brother of our Secretary,—Educational Director, Camp Activities, International Committee, Y. M. C. A.

EDUCATIONAL WORK IN THE ARMY AND NAVY

William O. Easton, Director, Camp Activities, International
Committee, Y. M. C. A.

OBJECTIVES OF ASSOCIATION EDUCATIONAL WORK.

The primary purpose of the educational program in the Army and Navy is increased efficiency in the immediate task of winning victory for the great cause for which our country is contending; the secondary purpose is preparation for the better social relationships to follow the war. With these purposes in view it has been found necessary to re-state largely educational methods.

As this war is one of ideas and ideals the winning of it depends not only upon physical force but upon an educational program based upon real spiritual factors, so that through a sympathetic understanding of the issues involved an appeal

may be made to the best in our soldiers. Army morals is fortified by an appreciation of the great issues at stake. Every man who goes over the top has a right to know why, and what is to be gained by his sacrifice. With these prime considerations in mind the purpose of educational work may be stated formally as follows:

DEMAND FOR AND SCOPE OF THE WORK.

A democratic army must be not only physically, but intellectually equipped. When the National Army was first assembled there was little appreciation of the educational needs of the men. It was thought that after a day's work in military training, the men would not and could not devote themselves to study. Many, therefore, hold that only entertainments would be patronized and that only light literature would be read. The men themselves, by their demand for books of a serious nature and for instructive lectures, soon dispelled this idea. Now each center provides an extensive educational program to meet this demand.

The testimony of all who have observed Young Men's Christian Association work in camps on the Mexican border and with the British and French armies at the front, agrees in rating educational work as one of the largest services the Association can offer. The testimony is also borne out by the cordial support and co-operation given the work at the present time.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS.

The educational progress is adapted to the conditions and the needs of the men at each camp center. In presenting each subject, the appeal to the student is through the concrete—the ends to be gained are made definite and immediate. Starting with problems to be solved, the students are led by gradual stages to related questions. Education is interpreted to them in terms of living and designed to help them meet present conditions affecting them.

EDUCATIONAL WORK.

The class work is grouped under the following headings:

1. *Illiteracy*.—In the training camps and centers, thousands of men, American born and speaking English, are unable to read or write. To understand semaphore signals and to read camp signs they must know the alphabet. To write to their home folks or to sign the pay-roll, a legible hand is required. Elementary work for large numbers is required to enable them to read and understand orders and to induce alertness and quickness of response.

The military authorities now appreciate the necessity for this work in elementary subjects and co-operate to the fullest extent, ordering attendance upon classes in many camps; detailing men as teachers and supervisors, relieving them of other duties.

2. *Americanization Work*.—The United States has always been the refuge for those who have sought a larger opportunity. As a result we have a cosmopolitan population, much of it not yet assimilated. These peoples of various races from all parts of the world have brought to this country their ideals and aspirations. We of the native population have in a measure neglected them—have not sought with enough care to train them in our standards—have not appreciated sufficiently their standards.

To meet the needs a large program is now in process including:—

(a) *English for Foreigners*.—English conversation, Reading, Spelling and Correspondence. For the camps a special series of conversation lessons has been prepared relating English instruction to army practice. Other series of lessons are being developed.

(b) *Civics and Citizenship*.—Naturalization processes; History of our own country with some reference to the countries from which groups have come; civics and Government of the United States with attention to democratic ideals, locally applied; Patriotism and the present war and its objectives; The organization of our forces on land and sea, and the place of each man in this organization.

These subjects may be developed through text books used as readers, through lectures often by men who speak the language of the group concerned, and through the formation of self-governing organizations in which the principles of enlightened democracy find expressions.

(c) *Welfare Work*.—Among men of foreign birth, including attention to the inspirational features of life; the prevention of exploitation; the provision of sane types of recreation; and care for the ambitious, giving each an opportunity to commissions or higher ratings.

3. *Grammar School Work*.—In our Army and Navy those not fitted by training for the more complicated tasks they are called upon to do demand instruction in common school subjects:—

(a) *English and History*.—To improve their spelling, their penmanship, their ability to read and understand as well as to write and send reports and dispatches, and to enlarge their range of interests with the enlarging of our country's horizon.

In this connection the various lectures given are utilized as material for English and History instruction. For portions of this work, special outlines have been prepared based upon texts for class use.

(b) *Geography and Elementary Science*.—To train men to see, to hear, to understand and to appreciate world relationships. To fit them personally to care for their health and vitality, and to prepare the way for further progress.

(c) *Vocational Courses*.—Sketching and Drawing; Arts and Crafts; Elements of Electricity, Chemistry, Physics. Each subject is developed with reference to the present occupation and needs of the group of men under consideration.

4. *Technical and Vocational Training*.—The Army and Navy, under its own control, does most of this work but there are instances where the Association can aid. There are in operation now courses in electricity, automobile repair, animal husbandry, homing pigeons, gas engine construction and other similar subjects.

In connection with the work of the home associations, special courses have been arranged in such subjects as Air-plane Construction; Automobile Repair and Operation; Gas Engines; Radio and Wireless Telegraphy and other specialized needs.

5. *Conversational French*.—The ability to understand and speak French is vital to the winning of the war. To understand a command, to be able to transmit an order in French, may save a battle and thus determine the final outcome. Further, a knowledge of the language of France is essential to the comfort and convenience of the men back of the lines in their associations with the French people. It also adds to an appreciation of that nation to which we are so much in debt.

The usual method of organizing work in French is as follows:—

(a) Secure the appointment of an educational committee, including the Camp Educational Secretary as the Acting Secretary of the Committee.

(b) Group officers and men for class work, according to their knowledge of French and arrange for the instruction that each group needs.

(c) Appoint for each camp, a Teacher-Supervisor of French and one or two assistants to instruct directly officers and men, and a normal class made up of those who will pass on to others the instruction received. In many instances nearby universities or local French teachers co-operate in rendering this service. The Training Centre may itself furnish the supervision and the teaching needed. Camp signs and slides in French and the use of the concert method have proven very helpful.

6. *War Backgrounds and Outlook*.—Clubs, Reading Courses and Lectures.

Contentment, camp spirit, army morale and better discipline result from the proper kind of educational activities of a less formal type.

The men in training should be strengthened in the conviction that the cause for which they are fighting is worth while.

To accomplish these ends, the following lecture and reading course suggestions are made—to indicate types rather than specific topics. Each lecturer will prefer to suggest his own topics and outlines.

(a) How to formulate a program:—

(1) Discover the needs of the men through conferences with them and form tentative lecture plans accordingly.

(2) Consult the Educational Committee concerning your plans and enlist help in selecting topics and speakers, in arranging times and places of meetings, and in securing teachers, leaders or presiding officers.

(3) In special instances only encourage attendance upon lectures or courses under military order. Men who are under detailed direction for long periods for other work should not be subjected to further restraints without sufficient cause.

(4) Advertise your plans on bulletin boards and in other ways, and prepare suggestions of magazine articles, references in books and pamphlets, and outlines of subjects or topics to be treated. On occasion post photographs and special newspaper or magazine articles for general information.

(5) Discover among the men, talent not now used. Develop the workers in camp. Do not depend too largely upon outside talent. Good speakers, writers and actors who can produce plays or pageants are found in most of the camps and naval training centers, and can be enlisted for service in presenting great movements in European and American History.

(6) Encourage the forum idea, inviting questions and discussions, when the leader is qualified to carry through such a program.

(b) A few illustrative topics as bases or suggestions for lectures, fireside talks, debates, formal and informal discussions, and addresses by officers or educational committee men to the men are given below. Each secretary or lecturer will work out others.

(1) "The Education That Made the War." A reading and discussion course on Germany's educational policy, pre-

pared by Robert E. Moore of Colgate University and arranged with a view to the transmission of its contents to the men by companies.

(2) "Crises In American History." A reading and discussion course under twelve headings, presenting the essential points in the development of our country's history. This material, prepared by David S. Mussey of Columbia University, should serve as a basis for lectures, debates, and fireside talks on American History and Government problems.

(3) "Russian History. Her People, Her Religion, Her Literature, Her Special Problems." A reading course designed to acquaint the thoughtful with the essential things that have made the Russian character what it is. The story of a "Thousand Years of Russian History," a study of the Russian spirit as interpreted by their leading writers since 1840, will give the student an appreciative understanding of this versatile and subtle people.

(4) "An Interpretation of Italy." An outline of the history of a people who have contributed much to Law, Freedom of Thought, Humanitarian Ideals, and Political Liberty; Early Italy in Review; The 12th and 13th Centuries; the Renaissance Movement; Italian Unity under Mazzini, Cavour and Garibaldi; Italy Today.

(5) "A Study of the Great War." A topical outline prepared by S .B. Harding. Published by the Committee on Public Information. Presents the fundamental causes of the war as they have appeared in ideas; the historical backgrounds in the period 1870-1914; and the development of the war to date.

(6) "France." Her part in History; Her struggles for Freedom; Her people and their customs; Her geography; Her language and literature; an interpretation of France to America.

(7) "The Near East." Unknown and neglected; an historical outline of peoples and countries, around which have centered for centuries wars and rumors of wars. We have here the inheritance of the Eastern Empire to which has been added the blighting domination of the Turks.

(8) "The Far East." Some of the issues there unsolved in the present war; The Emergence of China; The awakening of Japan; The Conditions in India; Far-away Siberia and Korea; all these are for the most part simply expressions. Through patient study these distant places must become living centres of human energy.

(9) "International Law as It Relates to War." An outline designed for the thoughtful who are desirous of knowing from this angle the principles and the practices at the bases of the present conflict.

(10) "A Series of Six Lectures with Slides," prepared by Professor J. F. Jameson of The National Board for Historical Service, with titles as follows:

The Warring Powers and Their Geography.

The French Republic and What It Stands For.

The Growth of Germany and Her Ambitions.

The British Empire and What It Stands For.

How the War Came About, and How It Developed.

The American Democracy and The War.

(11) Lessons in Geography, including lectures illustrated and based on a Handbook of Northern France, prepared by Prof. W. M. Davis of Cambridge, Chairman of the Committee of the National Board for Geographic Service.

A small Handbook containing suggestions for unlimited travelers, telling them what to look for and how to use their eyes and ears to the best advantage, is in preparation.

Other lessons on such topics as: The River Piave; The Bagdad Railway; Palestine; The English Channel, Its Significance in History; The River Rhine.

These and like topics presented interpretively hold the interest and give a breadth of view acquired in no other way.

(12) Problems of Reconstruction Facing America.

So vast and far-reaching are these that the best in Christian Statesmanship is challenged. There are involved: Social and economic policies for individuals, groups and nations; Welfare Developments of all descriptions, and educational and political readjustments, involving an appreciation of the higher standards and ideals of a Christian civilization.

7. *The Æsthetic Needs* of the Men in training have received little attention.

Here again the leisure hour can be turned to profit, and the talent for art appreciation and expression can be cultivated in practical ways.

To illustrate, at the Great Lakes Training Station, Mr. Dudley Crafts Watson has visited the boys weekly, teaching them in masses how to draw and sketch, and giving illustrated lectures on European Cathedrals, and European Art, which "we'll see, over there." At first the men were skeptical of their ability to draw. Soon, however, enough material was collected for an art exhibit and as a final result the commanding officer decreed that the boys should have an opportunity in a special place to develop their art talents.

A further illustration will broaden the conception of the work. In another centre, the commanding officer believes in music as a moral force and has given, with marked success, weekly interpretive recitals of the great musical masters.

Why not use the appreciation of the beautiful, inherent in all, in the building up of morale? Present through art and artistic expression ideals of moral worth in resisting the present attack on civilization. Use the available talent in and near the camps to train our men in one or other of the following:

Sketching and drawing, including the more intelligent use of pencil and drawing pad.

Appreciation of Art and Architecture of the Past, through Illustrated Lectures outlined by a committee of art leaders on European Cathedrals.

European and Modern Art and its relation to our present life.

Appreciation of Music, through a series of interpretive recitals of the World's Masterpieces. This can easily be made to lead to vocal and *instrumental instruction*. Mass singing in auditoriums or in the open have been greatly appreciated.

Hand-work—the larger use of the jack-knife.

Modeling, and its present day applications.

Caricature and the study of life, and the problems involved.

Practical applications of Art to War Work.

Drawing and Design—more formally planned.

8. *Health Education.*

There is nothing that affects the lives of enlisted men—soldiers or sailors—as vitally as **HEALTH**. To preserve it, in all its aspects, medical corps are organized and any health program must be carried out in closest co-operation with those officers.

The following topics, with modifications, have been found helpful as bases for lectures and discussions. These are often given by men chosen in the local camp or from nearby communities:

(a) **Personal Hygiene**—including attention to such subjects as **First Aid In Emergencies**; “**The Fundamental Conditions of Health**”; **Respiration**; **Circulation**; **Digestion**; **Elimination**; **Care of the Feet, Hands, Eyes, Nose, Throat, etc.**

(b) **Community Hygiene**—a study of **Germs and Infectious Diseases**; the use of such material as is furnished by the **National Tuberculosis Association**, the **Social Hygiene Association** observing the caution of extreme emphasis and using the material provided by the **Sex-Education Bureau**; **Temperance in Its Scientific, Economic and Moral Aspects.**

9. *Economic Education.*

Under this heading come topics difficult to treat adequately yet vitally important at this time and in days to come. Such subjects will be considered as **Thrift of Time, of Money, of Influence, of Character**. Opportunities for advancement in democratic as opposed to autocratic countries; types of education that help to develop democracies; vocational guidance and its significance. Problems of industrial and economic reconstruction, if widely presented, will help to establish, when the time comes, good will among all on the basis of justice to all.

10. *Social Education.*

This topic, as a subject of education, has received little attention. It includes right conduct under all conditions, preparedness to meet situations of a more or less personal nature, correct use of language, personal efficiency and other like subjects.

This phase of the educational program can be developed

through the presentation of the relationships of the men to their associates, the study of racial characteristics; travel talks, discussion of social customs and manners and domestic life of the peoples with whom we are now working.

The content of these bodies can be presented through Fireside Talks, Informal.

CAMP TRAINING ACTIVITIES OF THE FOSDICK COMMISSION.

The Function of this Commission, appointed by the Secretary of War is to coordinate the work of all agencies active in the camps and around the camps, and to assure the provision of proper conditions surrounding the camps and ample provision of recreation and amusement both in and out of the camps. The Commission has endorsed the Young Men's Christian Association as an important agency within the camps, and has asked the Association to continue and extend its program of activities. The Commission also provides auditorium for mass singing, lectures, and other activities. Civilian Aides for physical work, and other supplementary features are added as needed. They use existing agencies surrounding the camps, correlating their work for camp betterment.

CHAPLAINS.

Chaplains are commissioned officers in the Army and Navy. Their responsibilities include educational activities among their other duties. The educational work of the Association is supplementary to, and is carried on in cooperation with the Chaplains. Through them the Association finds an easy approach to the men, and can contribute in large measure to the effectiveness of their work.

CO-OPERATING AGENCIES.

The War Work Council of the Young Men's Christian Association is representative of our entire country. The funds with which the activities are carried on have come from the people of the entire country. The plans are based on the needs of men. The organization represents a movement in

which all agencies and all people share. It is a medium through which the home, the school, the church and even the State itself, give expression to the deepest desires and the highest hopes of the men and of those for whom the men are fighting.

The above statement indicates how impossible it is to acknowledge the co-operative aid of those who have helped to make the work possible, not only through contributions but through actual service rendered.

Colleges, Universities and Public School systems have freely given of their men.

The American Library Association, representing a vast public, has placed at the disposal of the men a great storehouse of information and inspiration.

Business, Scientific, Professional, Artistic and Library clubs for both men and women, have responded with talent and personal service times without number.

Individuals unattached to any special group, persons representing our own and foreign governments, associations with both national and local attachments and communities near the various camps organized for war service, have without stint helped to add a touch of home to camp life.

The Young Men's Christian Association is proud of its position as an agency of service. It is also humble because it recognizes that its capacity to serve bears a direct relation to its ability to merit the confidence and respect of all concerned.

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS WAR ACTIVITIES

James FitzPatrick, Secretary, Camp Dix

There are two phases to the work of the Knights of Columbus in camp, one primary and essential, the other secondary and non-essential. It may strike you as peculiar that the great stress is laid not on the social side of the work that we do, but our efforts are directed toward one thing, to help the men who are carrying the gun, if need be to die. We realize the benefit of entertainment, of the motion pictures, and in passing I want to say something which may be news to you, that we have been obliged to exercise the most constant vigilance to protect the men in camp from the most insidious form of unhealthy corruption, the motion picture film. It may be news to you to know that American motion pictures are censured in China and that we have to exercise the most scrupulous vigilance to see that they are of an American character and that the American manhood is not seriously undermined by them. There is no force in American life today, not even the Press, which exerts such power as the motion picture. I am a theatrical man and I think perhaps I may be a greenhorn to a good many things, but if every man and woman of this country raised their voices the motion picture theatres of this country would be cleansed, and if the films are not clean the blame rests with the women who can do it and don't do it. We realize the value of all these things, we realize the value of meeting a man when he comes in on the draft, and I would digress just an instant to draw a picture for you of the way your boys, your brothers and my brother if I had one, come into camp, what they go through and how homesick they are for something that is far different from entertainment. Down at Camp Dix, where I am stationed temporarily, about two weeks ago there was a contingent of 10,000 men which came in from the State of New York. The inoculation barracks is just across from my room and one

night I happened to look across and saw this long line of men awaiting their turn. My associate and I went out to say "Hello" to the men, and found they had not had so much as a drink of cold water since leaving their home town, many hours before. We got pails and carried water until six o'clock the next morning. The following night we had coffee. We learn by experience, that cup of cold water did more to take away the initial curse of separation of those boys from those they loved than anything else we could have done for them. We could have had Galli Curci sing for them, we could have had Caruso to sing for them, and we would not have done half so much to win their love and affection as we did with those pails of water carried in the dead of night. So when you hear stress laid upon the entertainment facilities and the entertainment activities in camp you must always remember that back of them are the things that you never hear about, because after all, in this work the same as in every other work, the really big vital things done no-one ever knows about.

The other phase of the work, and this is the most essential phase, is the religious side. We start with a premise and we work upon it that the vital thing in a man's life is that he die well. We realize that this is the one thing that makes the true soldier. You can give him material training and you can feed his body, and if you fail to develop and mature the soul that God breathed into him, then you haven't got a soldier. A very distinguished professor was killed in battle. He said in a little book called "The Ways of War" "that if an army cannot fight on an empty stomach it cannot fight on an empty soul," and that is our reason for existence. We bend every effort to see that a man's soul is fed and strengthened. I don't mean by that we just chase him around the parade ground with a club, but we put within his reach the means of soul feeding which he, as well as we, know are the means whereby his soul may be fed. There is no difference of opinion as to what satisfies that hunger. We have no illusions that anything but the one thing will satisfy it. We have no illusions about the man going into the front line trench with nothing between him and his God but his naked soul. So we take the prelim-

inary steps to see that he has a chance to protect that soul before he goes in. All this is for men of our own faith, because, like the Y. M. C. A., we make no attempt to encroach upon the rights of any other man to the faith in which he believes. We have masses for the man, and I wish that we who are out in the world and sit in our snug self-satisfied home so conscious of our own rectitude, could see the humble Christian faith of the men that are making up the army of this nation. I know something of men. I have fought for them and with them and against them, and I want to say there never was a finer body of men collected in the history of the world than the men that are making up the army of the United States of America. You will hear people at intervals, on occasions, come back from the trenches and perhaps come back from the training camps, and they will give vent to their feelings about the corruption that stalks unchecked in the cantonments, and you can take it from someone who knows that it is an ignorant and malicious lie. I have seen these men day after day, night after night, they were not under observation, and I want to tell you that it is only on the rarest occasions that I have heard language that wasn't all right, and I venture to say, without any fear of successful contradiction, that the moral standard of the men who are giving their lives that we may be saved, need fear no comparison with the men who stay at home. Keep that in your minds, because that is one of the insidious means of German propaganda and it is especially aimed at the armies of this country, to tell them that the men they love are being debauched and corrupted, and it is a lie! Not long ago, in fact only this afternoon, a friend of mine told me of some ships the other side of the water that were being loaded with bricks and concrete and camouflaged into the appearance of battleships, no-one apparently knew what they were for. Then volunteers were called for to man them and the complement was filled almost before the application for volunteers had died into silence. Only this afternoon the news has come forth that a number of these camouflaged battleships have been sunk in the Harbor of Ostend and the men who made up the crews of these ships escaped in a motor

boat, bombarded on all sides by land batteries and war ships. Will intelligent men imagine that men are going voluntarily into a Hell of that kind if they are not good men in the real sense of the word? I don't know of anything that expresses the character which we are trying to develop and strengthen in the men in the camps better than a story just told of General Gordon, who fell leading a charge with nothing in his hand but a walking stick. They are trying to live clean in the face of temptation such as few of us realize, because they are alone, and a lonely man is always the victim.

That is the underlying religious purpose for which the Knights of Columbus work, to place within the grasp of the men what they must do in order to possess their souls in peace, to give them every opportunity to keep that soul, in the camp, on the transports, in the trench and to go with him in the ultimate end into the face of the machine gun which means death. When we are exploiting the things which go to make up the ideal American soldier let's not forget the one essential, that without the clean soul, without the strong soul, without the fortified soul, there is no such thing as a true soldier possible. There will be need after this war is over for faith, as there is now. I don't mean the whole abstract word faith, I mean the concrete thing that carries a man through the dreariest and deepest hours of his life, when the thing he believes is steel turns to water, when his ideals are gone, when his faith in the lives of those at home is gone, when he feels that everything is done at home from the material angle, when all that distrust appears he has nothing left but his faith in God, and it is up to us in this training camp work to see that that faith is kept intact and uncorrupted. Whatever attacks that faith attacks the essential morale of the American army. It is propaganda and must be annihilated. We all pray for the end of the war, we all want to see those we love come back to us, but most of all we ought to want to be sure that those who have gone from us forever perhaps are going like soldiers and gentlemen, and everything which interposes to obstruct this necessity, to prevent that consummation ought to be destroyed as utterly as every last element

of Prussianism. Keep the home fires burning by all means, but keep the soul of the men that are doing the work strong and hot for the work that he is to do. The soldiers' work is to kill as many Germans as quickly as he can, and to keep on killing, and the sooner we wake up to that fact the better. A nation at war is not a public meeting; we are in the war to punish not to protect. There is nothing that makes for true military courage, for real fighting ability like the knowledge a man has that his soul is clean, and if the bullet has been moulded which is to carry him out of this life that he can go with a smile on his face and a song of confidence in his heart. So let us all work for the day when this thing of blood and iron, this master of German Military Dynasty is destroyed utterly.

THE CHAIRMAN: I now have great pleasure in introducing to you Mr. Cyrus Stimpson, Field Secretary of War Camp Community Service, representing what I would call, for short, "The Fosdick Commission.

Mr. Stimpson then explained the work of tying up the soldier with the community in which he is thrust, of finding foster mothers who will take a real interest in these boys away from home, of the recreational facilities offered, and of the importance of maintaining the morale of the soldier.

THE GIRLS' PATRIOTIC LEAGUE

Mrs. John W. Howell, Chairman, for Newark

The Girls' Patriotic League is an *idea* for girls to use in their various organizations, and for older women to help them to use and to understand.

It is a *link* designed to unite all American girls, without regard to creed, circumstances, or color, to give their best, in honorable character and in service, to their country, to their community, and to each other.

It is a filmy *organization* that readily thickens into working toughness, wherever girls are not yet organized.

From ten to thirty girls, of any age above twelve, choose a Commandant, at least twenty years old, and so constitute a detachment capable of all the activities of the League, having secured the O. K. of the League authorities.

Where girls are already organized in any way, the existing leaders simply become League Commandants also, and bring the Pledge before their girls, distribute the membership cards and buttons and bring their members to the Section Meetings of the whole League. All Commandants are kept in as close touch as possible with League authorities.

While specific work is not absolutely required, a vast amount of patriotic work has been done by the League; any honest girl who takes our Pledge will surely do some patriotic work.

The Pledge Cards have been distributed in the seats. As you can see, they read:—

"I Pledge to uphold the honor of my country, my community, myself and other girls, and to do personal service wherever possible for my country, my community and other girls."

Many of our mass meetings close with the girls all joining hands and reciting this pledge aloud together.

The pledge is the stronghold of the League. For the rich girls and the poor, the privileged and the backward to join in such a recital is an education.

A word about our beginnings: They were in Newark.

After Mrs. Danforth, of Orange, the National President of the League, had thought for a long time about the need for a stretched-out hand for girls in wartime, she came and talked it over with Mrs. Jacobsen; and when they had called a meeting or two of girl-lovers, and had had the benefit, particularly, of the advice of Secretaries of the Girls' Friendly Society, and the Young Women's Christian Association in Newark, this fine pledge was adopted, and our dear Mrs. Jacobsen mothered the Girls' Patriotic League into organized life, as a part of her Department of Social Welfare in the National League for Women's Service in Newark. It was soon made the National Junior Branch of the elder League, with no restrictions as such a Branch, but with the clear organization to lean on for a time.

As the Junior Red Cross develops we become somewhat less important as an organization for school-girls' patriotic work, but only more important as a linking and steadying patriotic idea for school-girls, and all others.

United in this League are Detachments from Sunday Schools, Sodalities, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, Y. W. C. A. and other Clubs, Girl Friendly Societies, Hebrew organizations, Industrial groups, Playgrounds, and Community Centers as well as from Public and Private Schools. All meet and work in their own groups excepting when all are called to the occasional Mass or Section Meetings.

There are now about 65,000 members in the League, the most being in New Jersey and in Connecticut, and our National Headquarters hears from Branches in sixteen States, from Massachusetts to Texas, and from Porto Rico. In Newark between 6,000 and 7,000 buttons have been distributed.

The way any girl-lover and patriot appreciates that pledge and is glad to tell the girls about it is inspiring, and the way the girls rise to the idea is wonderful, as only young things can be wonderful.

The possibilities that lie in the faithful wearing of the League-Button by women and girls on the streets throughout the country are very great. There is a feeling that the best

conduct must accompany the Button wearing. A man on the streets was overheard to say to a companion, "No use speaking to *that* girl, look at her Button."

In South Carolina a Northern woman met congenial friends after a little Southern girl had noticed the Button as marking membership in the League to which she herself belonged.

All members are asked to wear the Button always in the street, and to keep the Pledge Card where they will surely see it every single day,—best, we find, stuck in their mirrors.

Most of my own work in the League has been done in Newark, and it has been wonderfully interesting.

To speak to 400 or 500 girls at a time, in some school, and to do it several times a day, is the opportunity that came to us last Spring. How their hands would fly up when we asked them if they would like to help the country, all together, in this war-time. How understandingly, yet strangely, they looked at each other and at us when we told them of the unworthiness of "picking up boys," the danger of speaking to strange men! How frankly they would shout out "girls" when we asked them "Who wear the silliest clothes, girls or boys?" And with what self-respecting relief they would shout "big girls" when we asked them whether "big or little girls really wear the silliest?" How they worked and are still working, at any patriotic task, Red Cross or what not that their generous Teacher-Commanders could arrange for them! How interesting to hear some Italian child cry out "My Mudder told me dat," some American "My Brother always says so," or to watch some little colored girl sit and blink in the ideas that she was receiving.

The Sodality girls of the Roman Catholic Church are part of the finest strength of the League in Newark; none catch more readily what we mean when we ask them to maintain family standards on the streets—the standards of the Best Family they know of. None work more sturdily, or have dealt more generously in financial matters. Though that is not a quite possible thing to say when I recall how the Detachment in the least well-equipped school I have been to in this city

has steadily paid the Red Cross for all the materials it might have taken for nothing, besides sending to League Headquarters from time to time gifts of money for general League expenses. Money got by collecting old rubber and tinfoil, and by having a little play.

The school children, as well as the older girls, were eager to have Dues. "Sure we can give up a piece of chewing-gum once or twice a year," but when we heard of the Junior Red Cross we thought it wiser and more patriotic to ask no regular dues for our League.

It was a rather young girl in a Presbyterian Sunday School (her church was close to a big Armory) who, when I had talked of the lack of self-respect and patriotism there is in girls being familiar with soldiers that they do not know, and had asked them not to do it, had the honesty and pluck to cry, right before her Pastor, too, "It's *too hard!*" Such an honest Rebel-girl is almost always one of ability and good looks, but her youth will betray her if we do not tell her the truth about herself.

It was an older colored girl into whose eyes came the surge of freedom and of self-release as we talked of the "Honor part" of the Pledge.

Some of our most efficient young Commandants are the Jewish girls. More mass meetings and general "Pep" seem needed to hold them.

The factory girls needed no warnings, as a rule; what they want is union together, and friendly hands held out by those who are more woman-worldly-wise, and other-worldly wise, than any young thing can be.

In an Episcopal Guild meeting one evening an older girl got up way in the back of the room and called to me: "Mrs. Howell, why is it that boys stand by each other so much better than girls?" A question full of hope for girls and women if we can keep them asking it and can show them a better way.

A leading man worker in one of our Camps said to me, "The Girls' Patriotic League is fine, keep it up; sixteen-year-old girls are little fools." No, they are not. They are women children who are more or less logically following out what they

glean to be their function in life. We are the big "fools" who leave them to "glean," and do not educate them in that which concerns their honor.

Why is it our girls and young women have been wearing such outrageous clothes for years? Why have even some of our most privileged girls worn paint and powder on their silly young faces; and failed to wear clothes on their silly young backs, until decent boys have wondered how to respectfully guide a girl in dancing with her? Why is it that the bitterest cry of all cries that go up from our bitter cities is the cry of the uninformed girls, whom our civilization has pushed out from the walls of home-protection into publicity and public industry, and freedom, without telling them that truth about themselves which is the best safeguard for their freedom?

So the big duty of the Girls' Patriotic League to inform and link together for self-dedication all young girls to their country's, their community's, their own and each other's honor and welfare?

Miss Katherine Gardner, Secretary of the Bergen County League, then recited a poem written especially for the County League.

TO OUR GIRLS.

Our country gives the young men it has treasured
To suffer—and to die, perhaps—for you.
By God's own standard let your gifts be measured;
To their own highest, hold your champions true.
To keep our country free, our children fearless,
Our women clean, they face the hell of war.
Arm them with memories pure, to courage peerless!
Give them a womanhood worth dying for!

NEW JERSEY WOMEN'S CLUBS IN WAR WORK

Mrs. John R. Schermerhorn, President, N. J. State Federation
of Women's Clubs

The appeal which has come to the whole world for service, and service, and more service, has of course come to the Club woman. Her years of preparation in an organized body, her ever keeping abreast of the movements of the times, her common sense manner of meeting a situation, all qualified her for the work with which, instinctively, the authorities turned to her when the call came.

The impetus given to Red Cross work by the grave needs "over there" called women from every walk of life and thought to service, but naturally, the trained Club woman has stood out the country over. She has known how to organize, how to direct, and also how to follow. Many Clubs throughout the State have been the Red Cross Unit of their community. They have organized and carried on the entire Red Cross work therein, giving many hours every day to the working out of the problem.

A year ago, all the women of the country were startled by the cry "Food must be conserved, and the women of the country must do it." Only for a moment were they startled; and then, they turned to, valiantly following directions as to *how*, that came from Washington.

Many Clubs started gardening, fruit and vegetable canning, etc., forming and carrying on classes therefor in order to truly respond to the cry of "Conserve!" Many Club women sacrificed their usual summer holidays to respond to this call to service. They not only assisted one another, but they assisted their less fortunate sisters in learning how to *eliminate* waste and extravagance and to substitute *thrift* in the kitchens of the State. Consequently, thousands of pounds of meat, butter, flour, sugar, coal, etc., have been saved for the

fighting bodies on the other side, besides teaching our own home people a sadly needed lesson in practical common-sense.

The great wave of the first Liberty Loan rolled over the country and caught therein all sorts and all conditions. Again the Club women were singled out for the positions of leadership. Many of our women in this State have successfully planned and carried out the first, second and third drives. Many Clubs have purchased bonds that are laid aside for sinking funds, for a future club house, and so on. The individual response and effort can hardly be estimated. The personal purchases of bonds range from one fifty-dollar bond to bonds of larger denominations, even running into five figures.

The "little brother" of the Liberty Loan, the War Saving Stamp, has found many eager and willing friends among the Club women. Stamp Societies have been formed within the Clubs, besides individual Club women independently pledging themselves for weekly amounts. They also have, as in the Liberty Loans, organized and managed the W. S. S. drives in their communities.

The War Library Commission has also met a hearty response from the Club women. Many thousands of books have been given and collected for our own boys here and overseas through co-operation with the State Library Commission.

The N. J. Division of the Women's Committee of the Council of National Defense has drawn largely on the ranks of Club women for its organization, for throughout the State we find, from the State Chairman down, Club women acting as Vice-Chairmen, Heads of Departments, County, and Unit Chairman, organizing and directing woman's activities in the State.

The N. J. State Federation of Women's Clubs has a unique war activity among the State Federations of the country. They are maintaining a most successful Soldiers' Club at Wrightstown, "The Haversack," which is giving to many men at Camp Dix a real home life and spirit, within easy access of their preparatory school for grim duties "over there." This

Club is carried on by contributions from the Clubs and Club women in the State. The hopes, the love, the aspirations that have gone into this particular war work, have made of it a beautiful thing, of which the women themselves and the soldiers who have made it their home, are justly proud and thankful.

Besides the knitting, bandage and garment making, etc., the nursing classes, the home economy response, the almost superhuman co-operation in every direction in the way of preparation, conservation, and relief work, the Club women have gone on being all they were before the war, and more—they have fulfilled their duties as mothers and home-makers, they have helped the needy and the sad, they have given their beloved ones to their country, sending them away with smiles on their faces but with, oh, such sad but brave hearts—they have heartened their men at home, they have been in every way true, American women, full of love and loyalty and faith that all will be well, for an Allwise Hand has prepared us, and is guiding us through this dark and perilous time, to a future full of promise of higher ideals and a finer humanity. In the words of our own Miss Marion Smith:

FEDERATION SONG.

Daughters of Freedom's land,
Ready with heart and hand,
Strong for the Right!
Now raise your voices high,
In one clear song reply
To life's appealing cry
For love and light!

Why stand we here today?
Why but to make the way
For hope's glad feet,
Bidding the world aspire
To purer aims and higher,
That home's own altar fire
Burn bright and sweet.

Daughters of Freedom's land,
Holding Truth's torch ye stand,
Crowned with God's grace,
That this great age may see
How fair its destiny,
And they who come may be
A nobler race.

Tuesday Evening, April 23, 1918

**Topic: AFTER-WAR WORK WITH THE HANDICAPPED AND
THE LABOR SUPPLY**

Gen. Lewis T. Bryant, Chairman

THE CHAIRMAN: Ladies and gentlemen, the subject under consideration tonight is one of the most vital importance of all the problems with which we are confronted during this time of stress and war conditions. I know of no one thing which has been done with less degree of efficiency or in a more hopeless manner than the general handling of the normal labor supply in this country. Now that there is a premium placed upon the man power of our community, our State and nation, there is an even more ever present necessity for having this labor turned over in a more scientific way and with more care and less waste. At the present time we have several well established offices, one in Newark, one in Camden, Trenton, and hope to have one in Jersey City that will be in operation during the next month. In the City of Newark and in the other cities where there is a demand for certain types of intelligent workers there is a lack of employment. These men could be taken and fitted into the vacancies which are existing in these other industrial establishments, with great advantage to themselves and to their employers. I think the way to handle the labor subject is from the very beginning. I was very much impressed to see the little children coming up to the clerks wanting to know if they had a job. I thought of my own two little boys—working without any regard to their future, without any regard to their future advancement and perhaps working under conditions unhealthy. We spend money for our vocational schools, but I think it is a splendid thing and one of the best to find after going through school, out to his first job the child should have the guidance of a helpful hand. You may be surprised to know that in New Jersey from fifteen to seventeen thousand children between

the ages of fourteen and sixteen leave the schools of this State and go into some kind of employment. How many of that seventeen thousand children have any real instruction, how many of them go out and get the first job that offers. Perhaps some friend of the family will tell them they can get in at a certain plant. They go and get that job. I have written a letter to the President of the Board of Education of the City of Newark urging upon it to provide some method of having the supervision of these thousands of children leaving schools and going to work so that they will be handled through a vocational guidance committee that will be hooked up with the employment agency of the city to see that these children are supervised and instructed.

You have on the program tonight a man who, in my opinion, has done more towards making the employment service throughout the State the measure of success it has already attained than anybody else I know. I take great pleasure in introducing to you my associate, Mr. Joseph Spitz.

FINDING JOBS FOR THE HANDICAPPED

Joseph Spitz, Director, State Employment Bureau, Newark

The present importance of employment work for the handicapped cannot be overestimated, but its real work will begin only when our armies are disbanded. A man who is suddenly rendered a cripple through any cause finds himself like a child, and to the men crippled in Service the Government owes a debt—either they must be beneficiaries of compensation insurance or trained to some work that will enable them to earn an independent livelihood.

The handicapped may be divided into several classifications:

1. Cripples—Those who have lost a limb or are disabled in leg or arm or suffer other bodily loss.

2. Invalids—Including those affected with pulmonary disease.

3. Aged—Those who require work not taxing mentally or physically.

4. Convalescents—Those who require work for a short while of a light character.

5. Blind—Who have been trained in their own schools and who are cared for by the State Commission for the Blind or are being relieved through some other channel.

6. Deaf and Dumb—Who come under classification similar to the Blind.

7. Mentally Deficient—For whom, if their condition warrants, work not too complex may be found.

8. Mothers With Children to Support or Unmarried Mothers—Such case of which must be worked out for itself. It is advisable in many of these cases to work in co-operation with the Bureau of Associated Charities and other organizations who investigate these cases.

I am going to cover the first classification principally—cripples—as I feel that that is the most urgent.

The entrance of the United States into the World War has served to heighten the interest in the employment of handicaps and the National and Economic authorities have this problem to consider which is closely connected with the War—the care and employment of the wounded soldiers brought back from the battlefield. The healing of the wounded and their preparation for self-support must be made effective by a third step—that of finding suitable employment for them when they are ready for it.

One of the heavy costs of War consists in handling of the disabled men. In the past such soldiers have been insufficiently indemnified for their injuries by pensions or admission to the Soldiers' Homes. These circumstances tend toward demoralization. The cripples can be trained toward self-support and the solution is re-education of those physically unfit to return to their former trades. The cripple should be taught some work by which he may become independent and self-reliant and not given work, the success of which, depends upon the

generosity of the public, or an old man's job—such as watchman, etc. The ideal trade to teach a cripple is one in which the wage standards are high; employment steady and the demand for labor increasing. He should be given his training near home where the educational authorities will be in closer touch with employment conditions. Before we can make good and effective placement of cripples—placements which will make the men self-reliant—it is essential in view of their physical handicap that the men be skilled in some line. The first job for the man returning from the front will be comparatively easy, but we should not be misled by superficial conditions. The employer is patriotic and anxious to help the crippled soldiers. But when the War shall have become over for a few years the cripples will obtain remunerative employment by skill alone. Dr. Patterson will talk on the Reconstruction and Rehabilitation of the Wounded and Diseased of War and Industry later in the evening.

To find a suitable place for each individual requires a good deal of thought. This kind of employment is different from other employment work as the reciprocal necessity is to have the applicant contentedly employed and to have the employer assured of maximum efficiency. However, if honest efforts are not made to fill the employer's requirements, it would soon be impossible to create an opening for handicaps and we have not the right to sacrifice our future prospects by risking the confidence of the employers by sending inefficient operatives. The problem of satisfying both the employee and employer is at times quite difficult. We need the sympathetic co-operation of the industrial world.

In order to care for the employment of these handicapped men, it is necessary to recapitulate available opportunities and from these to endeavor to place the handicap who is seeking a means to earn a livelihood. We have in this State our Federal-State-Municipal Employment Bureau where a study is being made of this question and where a general adjustment of the open position and the man seeking employment can be made so that a man need not walk from place to place seeking work, a practice tending to create unrest. The

important function is to study the best methods of utilizing the labor of disabled men in the interests of the economic life of the country. We should not be satisfied with the mere finding of a situation for the disabled soldier or industrial worker. He should be able to return to his home under conditions which will permit him to assume personal initiative.

The competition of women after the War is taken into consideration and as laborious work as is compatible with a man's capabilities should be selected, and no one field should be overcrowded, such as telegraphy, typing, etc., which would result in a consequent lowering of prevailing standards and increasing the chances of unemployment.

There is one real difficulty to be overcome in the placing of cripples and that is to secure a ruling on the employer's responsibility in the employment of cripples so that no discrimination may be shown by insurance companies against such workers. It is also essential that the public employment service obtain the co-operation of the employers through publicity so that the service will be ready when required. All industries will not be suitable for the war cripples or other handicaps. Here are some of the occupations in which persons in each of the classifications mentioned might find suitable employment:

1. Cripples.—Shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, telegraphy, drawing and designing, tinsmithing, driving, orderlies, factory hands, munition inspectors, packers, firemen, plumbers, clerks, chauffeurs, tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, printers, timekeepers, bank tellers, collectors, guards, barbers, cooks, farmers, telephone operators, accountants and a host of others.

This is really the most hopeful class. Of course some men who will return will be men who are permanently disabled to such an extent that they will be unable to earn their own living under any circumstances, but we hope that there will be a minimum of cases where a man cannot be taught to support himself.

2. Invalids.—This would include those suffering from tuberculosis in such a form as would warrant their securing work. In this case every precaution must be taken to see that

working conditions are suitable and this will be a hard group to place satisfactorily. They may be placed as solicitors, watchmen, chauffeurs, drivers, collectors, janitors, elevator attendants, salesmen, light skilled factory work and light outside labor, also gardening.

3. Aged.—The aged might be used in these occupations: Watchmen, janitors, caretakers, elevator attendants, door-keepers, telephone operators, gardening.

4. Convalescents.—Would come under practically the same class as the invalids excepting clerical work or some light inside job might be found for them.

5. and 6. Blind and Deaf and Dumb.—Have been cared for in their own institutions and are trained to do work without the use of the lost sense.

7. Mentally Deficient.—If the conditions warrant and such handicaps come to our attention, certain mechanical or manual work might be found for them as orderlies, gardening, laboring, etc.

8. The last handicap deals with mothers who are left all alone with one child or more. At times these mothers are unmarried and it seems best that they shall be placed with their children in domestic service. Places of this kind can often be found in the country. Most of these women who come to us are admirably adapted to domestic service. But there is very often the case of the widow with two or three children dependent upon her. The only solution of her problem is home work, for which she is poorly paid. With the co-operation of the Day Nurseries these women may sometimes leave their children through the day and accept a position in a factory or in whatever she may be skilled, though whenever possible, it is always advisable to keep the mother and child together.

I think these classifications cover the ordinary run of handicaps.

There is now pending in the U. S. Senate the Simon-Alexander Bill which provides for the re-education of disabled soldiers during which time they will receive compensation equivalent to that received during active service. Let us hope

that the time is not far distant when similar provision will be made for the industrially handicapped. We all know the chances for reclaiming disabled men decrease in proportion to the time they are allowed to spend in idleness.

THE CHAIRMAN: It certainly seems self-evident to any student of the situation that one of the serious problems confronting the economic work is the proper distribution of labor, the placement of the men, women and children in the jobs for which they are best fitted. It was surprising to me, as it doubtless is to you, that about six millions of people of this country are idle most of their time. Presumably the large majority of these people are in normal health. We estimate about two million people known as floaters, never apparently settled or remain long in any position. Those who are handicapped by nature, by accident or one cause or another, are placed in a class entirely by itself.

We now will have the pleasure of hearing about this.

AN INDUSTRIAL OPPORTUNITY FOR THE BLIND

**Miss Carol Purse, Superintendent, Double Duty Finger Guild,
Ampere, N. J.**

The Double Duty Finger Guild, which I personally like to call by its sub-title, "Electrical Workshop of the Blind," is an opportunity for the blind men or women to hold a regular job, in a regular factory, and receive for it a regular day's pay.

Those of you who have followed at all the evolution of work with the blind, know the effort which has been made in the last decade or so to find suitable occupations, and you also know how futile much of this effort has been. There are the gifted blind who are lawyers, doctors, stenographers and what not, but among the average blind all too many are still making baskets which nobody particularly wants, or doing useful work such as chair-caning and piano-tuning, which are

unfortunately irregular and not to be counted upon for steady earning. Among the people who have been much interested in this effort to find practical occupation for the blind, is Dr. Schuyler Skaats Wheeler, president of the Crocker-Wheeler Company, manufacturers of electrical machinery at Ampere, but until one year ago his thoughts on the subject had not taken definite form. Somebody remarked from this platform last evening that "reformation like charity begins at home." That idea evidently occurred to Dr. Wheeler last May, though not perhaps in those words, for it was then that Dr. Wheeler gave heed to the fact that much of the taping of armature coils in his own factory was a hand process not unlike the process utilized in basket-making and chair-making, and having made that observation Dr. Wheeler invited a few blind people to come into the factory and try this work.

That was in May, 1917. We will soon have our first birthday. There are now thirty-five blind employees at the Double Duty Finger Guild. An additional room has recently been turned over to this department of the factory and these new quarters will be the Woman's Annex. The majority of these employees are self-supporting. The living which they are able to make is not in any sense a luxurious one, but as I said in the beginning, it is an opportunity to hold a regular job, in a regular factory and to get in return what for nearly all is sufficient to pay expenses and for a few, sufficient in addition to lay a little aside. There has been much discussion during these two days on this platform concerning work for the physically handicapped who will return from the war. It will be of interest to this audience to know that the United States Government is watching closely the Crocker-Wheeler experiment and we have been asked by the office of the Surgeon General to keep them posted as to developments.

The way, of course, is not all smooth sailing. The obstacles are many. They divide themselves into somewhat roughly "external obstacles" and "internal" ones. By external obstacles I mean such things as transportation, although this is less of a problem than the average person would think, for a good many blind people travel quite alone. For many

others, however, transportation offers a distinct obstacle and something must be done before they can accept employment. The question of board for those who live beyond commuting distance is also a difficult one, the majority of homes immediately saying "no" and looking upon us as very queer when we ask them to take a blind person as a boarder. There is also much skepticism to be overcome, because, building on past experiences, the blind person on first hearing of a new enterprise is likely to shrug his shoulders and say "Oh, just another one of those promises that will last for a little while and then die." These difficulties, however, are small compared with the more subtle problems which I have called the "internal obstacles." We have nearly reached the limit of the number we can employ in the present processes. In order to extend the opportunity it is necessary frequently to try new operations. Sometimes these are successful; sometimes they are too difficult or otherwise not adapted to the skill of the blind people and much discouragement arises at times. A second problem in this classification lies in the fact that every effort is being made, primarily for the sake of the blind people themselves, to raise the department to a purely business project free from subsidy. For many blind people this is the strongest reason for wishing to be employed there. From others, when the days of discouragement arise, the remark is likely to come. Oh, it's all very well to say this is for the good of the blind people, but we know that it is a matter of making money for the Company."

A third point of difficulty closely allied with those previously stated, is one for which the blind people themselves are not to blame, but you and I and the other sighted people around the blind. One general attitude toward the blind is so habitually one of over-indulgent patronage, as if we were concerned with small children, not responsible, as if we were concerned with small children, not responsible intelligent adults, that the blind person reacts, and except in rare cases finds it difficult to hold himself to a strong sense of responsibility. Even some of the most intelligent and competent, when things do not go as they would like, tend to fall back

and say, "Well, I don't have to work anyhow; somebody will look out for me." Right here I should like to turn aside for a minute from the Double Duty Finger Guild and make a plea in behalf of the blind and our treatment toward him. We are at the crossing of the ways in our attitude of mind about many things through the big war experiences that are coming to us constantly, and while we are thinking of the blinded soldier and what we are going to do for him, let us take heed of the blind who are already with us and get into the habit of thinking of blind people, not as a separate special class of people, but as people who happen not to see, but who in other respects are "just folks"—the same as you and I, and let us treat them precisely as we would any of the other people about us.

In closing I would like to make an offer for help in other localities. We are convinced as a result of this experiment, that there are many kinds of work which blind people can do successfully and because we have this practical experiment back of us, we find business concerns cordially responsive to what we have to say. If in your work over the State (or in other states), you find a business concern in any degree interested to consider the employment of blind people, and you would like our help in telling how capably blind people work among us, we will take great pleasure in giving this help. Our daily effort is devoted, of course, to making the Double Duty Finger Guild stronger and better in every way in our power, but we will serve our largest purpose if in addition it acts as an inspiration towards far more extended employment of the blind. If this can come to pass, we will then be worthy of the phrase by which one of our employees has described us, "The first great step in the industrial emancipation of the blind."

After a solo selection by Louisa Curcio, member of Class for the Blind in Newark Public Schools, Dr. Francis D. Patterson, Chief, Division of Industrial Hygiene and Engineering of the Department of Labor, of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, gave an interesting talk and showed several films on the "Reconstruction and Rehabilitation of the Wounded and Dis-

eased of War and Industry." Dr. Patterson stated that, so far, very little had been done to provide for the handicapped of war. This delay will cause many to become permanently disabled who might otherwise have been saved if suitable equipment and treatment had been provided in time.

The films showed how man's ingenuity is making over and adapting the various kinds of cripples, to different kinds of industrial pursuits.

BUSINESS SESSION

Tuesday Afternoon, April 23, 1918

The President, Mr. Robert L. Flemming, Presiding

The reports of various Committees were made at this time and other business transacted.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Your Committee on Resolutions recommends that a special vote of thanks and appreciation be extended to the Local Committee who have arranged so satisfactorily and co-operated so effectively to make this Conference a great success and particularly to those who loaned their automobiles and otherwise contributed to the entertainment and comfort of the Conference.

To the management of the Broad Street Theatre for their generous arrangement for our use of the auditorium; to the Trinity Cathedral Choir and the quartette from the Manual Training and Industrial School for Colored Youth at Bordentown, we would tender our hearty thanks. Your Committee also wishes to call your attention to the instructive exhibit assembled under the direction of Mr. A. W. MacDougall in co-operation with representatives from the Newark Museum Association.

We would extend on the part of the Conference a vote of thanks to the Program Committee for the excellent results

of their plans, and to the writers of papers and the speakers who have contributed so much to make this meeting unusually helpful, constructive and inspiring.

Your Committee feels that it is opportune to present the following special resolutions at this time:

Resolved, That recognizing the importance of the recent legislation establishing a State Department of Charities and Correction in New Jersey and feeling that this measure has the greatest possibilities for good in the development of social work in this State, we hereby pledge our hearty co-operation and loyal support to this new Department.

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Conference that the findings of the psychologists, the tuberculosis experts, the psychiatrists and other expert examiners engaged in war work in-so-far as they relate to New Jersey cases, be reported to the State Department of Charities and the State Board of Helath, to the end that adequate and suitable provision may be made for these unfortunates. Also that copies of all such records shall be sent to the Surgeon General of the Public Health, to the end that adequate and suitable provision may from the scientific standpoint.

Your Committee also wishes to re-affirm the resolution of last year in which the social workers of the State pledged their allegiance and active co-operation to the State and National Authorities in the present crisis. Also that there is supreme need in maintaining unimpaired throughout the war the various charitable and correctional agencies, and that the standards due to war conditions and relaxed supervision should not be lowered.

E. R. JOHNSTONE, *Chairman*;
FRANK A. FETTER,
C. L. STONAKER,
W. L. KINKEAD,
MRS. E. V. H. MANSELL.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NOMINATION

MRS. LEWIS S. THOMPSON, *Chairman*;

A. W. MACDOUGALL,

JOHN A. CULLEN,

A. W. ABBOTT,

MRS. F. C. JACOBSON,

RABBI SOLOMON FOSTER,

MISS JENNIE LOIS ELLIS,

MRS. BRICE COLLARD,

A. D. CHANDLER.

See page ——— for Officers, Executive Committee and Advisory Board of 1919 Conference.

On motion of Mr. Abbott, it was moved that Resolutions of sympathy be sent to the Federated Charities of Baltimore, and the National Child Labor Committee, as well as the National Conferences of Social Work on the deaths of Mr. James W. McGruder of Baltimore and Dr. A. J. McKelway of Washington.

Mr. MacDougall then offered a Resolution that the name of the Conference be changed to the New Jersey Conference on Social Work. On motion of Professor Johnstone this was amended to refer the changing of the name to the Executive Committee who would report at the next Conference.

REPORT OF TIME AND PLACE COMMITTEE

The Time and Place Committee unanimously decided that the invitation of Atlantic City should be accepted as the next meeting place of the Conference. This was also referred to the Executive Committee for further action.

DR. MADELEINE A. HALLOWELL,

Chairman;

MRS. ROBERT DODD,

ZED H. COPP,

MRS. JAMES M. MCCARTHY,

MRS. LEON CUBBERLY,

DECATUR M. SAWYER.

**REVISION OF CONSTITUTION, Adopted 1902, Amended 1913,
1916, 1917, 1918**

Article 11, Section 3, was amended to the effect that the Secretary shall hereafter be chosen by the Executive Committee instead of the Nominating Committee.

CLOSING REMARKS OF PRESIDENT

Personally, I simply want to thank those who have made this Conference such a success. Your Local Committee deserves all kinds of praise, and the Secretary also certainly made the duties of the President exceedingly light. Before I leave I want to acknowledge my debt of gratitude both to the Secretary and to all those of the Local Committee who made this Conference such a great success.

I now want to introduce to you the President-Elect of the 1919 Conference. I can assure you he is one that will pull this Conference through this war season in a way that will be a credit to New Jersey. I take pleasure in introducing to you Prof. Frank A. Fetter of Princeton.

REMARKS OF PRESIDENT-ELECT

I feel in a way that I am a newcomer in New Jersey. I have served as long a time as was necessary for Jacob to win Rachael. It is seven years since I came to this State from New York, where for many years I had been active in the State Conference there. I assure you that the crossing of State line does not mean the transfer of loyalty, because we have but one cause and whether one has worked in the State of New York or the State of California or Indiana—and I have worked in all of those States—one feels that there are no State lines in this work. It is a national work, it is humanitarian work that far transcends the boundaries of States or Nations.

Last year we were disturbed as we met at Montclair just after the momentous decision that we were to enter this great war; we looked forward with misgivings to the year before us, fearing that the taking on of these great burdens of the war would mean the sacrifice of these social interests that are so dear to our hearts, and we then adopted a certain resolution "Firmly resolved that there shall be no step backward," and at every session of this conference here we have had the enheartening assurance that our fondest hopes have been

realized, that instead of a year of retrogression it has been a year of progress. Now, we are getting fairly into the war. The strain upon our energies and resources will be so enormous that we wonder whether it will be possible to keep up the work of this next year. That is the task before us. We have not only the achievement of the twelve months past, but in every State of the Union it is the same story, this social work is going forward in the face of the difficulties and apparent rivalry.

Psychologists assure us that there are sources of energy that are untapped in every one of us. Professor James called them "those reservoirs of nervous energy which lie there all unused with most of us most of the time" and it is that which makes possible this endurance. It is upon them we must draw every moment and hour during the twelve months to come, and I call upon all of you here as members of this Conference to resolve and devote yourself to that task so that when we meet a year from now we shall have a glorious story to tell. Our boys will be giving their lives, we shall be giving of our money and effort and our dearest hopes, but we shall with all that be slackers if we do not do our share toward making this a finer and better nation as a result of these human sacrifices which we have endured together.

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